

A
SHORT
HISTORY OF THE INDIAN PEOPLE

BY

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PREFACE TO THE NEW EDITION, 1924. . .

The labours of research scholars in Indian history have brought to light new facts, and a new edition incorporating the results of these researches is now offered to the students. The whole book, and specially the early and mediaeval periods have been thoroughly revised; some chapters have been recast and rewritten; many errors "sanctified by age" have been corrected; much new matter has been added; and the general arrangement altered and improved in several places. Two new maps and two more "genealogical tables have been added.

I am indebted to the authors of the following works which have been largely consulted: *Carmichael Lectures*, 1918, by Professor D. R. Bhandarkar M.A., Ph. D; *Political History of Ancient India* by Dr. Hem Chandra Ray Chaudhuri M.A., Ph. D; *Sivaji and His Times* by Professor Jadu Nath Sarkar, M.A., P.R.S., *Jahangir* by Professor Beni Prasad, M.A., and *The Oxford History of India* by Dr. Vincent Smith.

A. C. M.

PREFACE TO THE REVISED EDITION, 1921.

The book has again been carefully revised and considerably enlarged, and about 32 pages of new matter have been added. It is hoped that this will increase its usefulness to some extent.

A. C. M.

PREFACE TO THE REVISED EDITION 1910

The book has been thoroughly revised in accordance with the new syllabus prescribed by the University of Calcutta. Much new and valuable matter has been incorporated and no pains have been spared to make the work as much useful as possible for those who will take up History for the Matriculation Examination.

A history of India if it is to be read, says Dr. Vincent A. Smith, must necessarily be the story of predominant dynasties and either ignore or relegate to a very subordinate position the annals of the minor states. This principle was acted upon when the book was first written and there has been no substantial alteration in this edition.

Three new maps have been added in order to help the students to grasp the political situation of the country at important stages of its history.

In the old edition each heading of a paragraph was a key to its substance. That useful feature has been retained in this edition while marginal notes have been introduced in order to assist the students to analyse the contents of the paragraph.

A. C. M.

PREFACE



THE young students of our schools generally look upon history as a mere string of dry, often unconnected, facts, and the study of history means to them the loading of memory with those facts without much attempt to digest them. They look to the events simply, but lose sight of the chain that binds them together. The result is that this most useful subject appears to them to be as dry and uninteresting as a register of births and deaths. To remedy this evil an attempt has been made in this little book to present students with a handy manual which will awaken their interest in Indian history by giving them a clear and connected idea of its main facts. The plan and peculiar features of the book have been suggested to me in the course of a long experience as a teacher of history, and I trust that this experience has enabled me to produce a manual well adapted to the needs of young learners. The following may be mentioned as among the prominent features of the book —

(1) In the Introduction a general outline of the physical geography of India has been given, and an attempt has been made to show the influence it has exercised upon the history of the country.

(2) The general character of the political history of the country has been stated early in the work to enable

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A SHORT HISTORY OF THE INDIAN PEOPLE.

INTRODUCTION.

THE PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY OF INDIA AND ITS INFLUENCE ON THE HISTORY OF THE COUNTRY.

India is naturally protected.—India is bounded on the north by the Himalayas, the loftiest mountain ranges of the world, which wall it off from Central Asia. Its eastern and western shores are washed by the Bay of Bengal and the Arabian Sea respectively. The mighty Himalayas send out ranges southwards along both its north-western and its north-eastern frontiers, separating it from Afghanistan and Beluchistan on one side and from Burma on the other. India is thus naturally protected on every side by lofty mountains or the sea. The only land approaches to the country are the great passes that cross the ranges on the north-west and on the north-east. We shall see later on that nearly all the early invaders entered India through these gates.

Boundaries

Gates of India.

India more a Continent than a Country.—India is an epitome of the world. It contains a great variety of races representing all stages of social progress from the most enlightened Aryan to the naked savage of the hills, while its vast jungles teem with numerous

Variety of
physical
features

and splendid specimens of animal and vegetable life. Here we meet almost all the striking physical features of the world, lofty mountains and low valleys, flat plains and high plateaus, hot deserts and magnificent forests, beautiful waterfalls and large navigable rivers all appear in this land in their native grandeur. As the country extends about 2000 miles from north to south and contains all degrees of elevation, from the highest mountains in the world to vast river deltas raised only a few inches above the sea, its climate also ranges from arctic cold to equatorial heat.

The three Natural Divisions of India—India divides primarily into three natural divisions—(1) The Himalaya mountain regions. These rise suddenly from the plains and stretch along the whole northern frontier for a distance of 1500 miles, forming the territories of Kashmir, Nepal and Bhutan. (2) The plain of Northern India or *Hindusthan*. It stretches from the foot of the Himalayan regions down to the Vindhya ranges which cross the middle of India from west to east. It includes the basins of the great Himalayan rivers—the Indus, the Ganges and the Brahmaputra (in the lower part of its course), and the desert tracts of Rajputana. The second division of India is a great almost unbroken plain, noted for its rich fertility with the exception of the desert tracts just mentioned. (3) the *Deccan* or the Indian Peninsula*. It is an elevated plateau of triangular shape with the slope from west to east. Its eastern and

Himalayas

Hindusthan

Deccan

*The name *Deccan* is now sometimes applied to a more restricted area viz. to the high tableland between the Tapti and the Krishna.

western faces are formed respectively by the Eastern and the Western Ghats, which meet at an angle near Cape Comorin, the southernmost point of India. On the north it is bounded by the Vindhya ranges, whose numerous ridges and peaks, and vast forests always rendered communications between Northern and Southern India a difficult matter in ancient times.

The land rich in natural resources.—More than half of India lies within the tropics, and as the country also receives abundant periodical rains, it is richly supplied with all the treasure that heat and moisture are capable of producing. The land has ever been famous for the richness of its soil and the variety of its products and has always supplied beautifully almost every requirement of man. While the hamboo and the fine timber of the vast forests enable the people to build houses with but little labour, the cotton plant furnishes cheap clothing, and the plentiful crops of wheat and rice supply cheap food. In fact nearly every vegetable product that is needed to feed and clothe a people, or to help it to carry on foreign trade, is found in this land as plentifully as one could wish. In olden times, the rich diamonds of Golconda and the fine pearls of the Southern seas made the wealth of India a proverb over the civilized world.

Tropical
wealth.

How the Physical Geography has influenced the History of the country.—The physical geography of India has moulded the character and the political destinies of its people. The rich soil, the genial climate and the large navigable rivers have produced their natural effects. Prosperous cities sprang upon the

Early
civilisation

banks of the rivers which afforded every facility for trade and communication while the fertility of the soil bringing the comforts of life within easy reach, left men sufficiently at leisure to develop the various arts of civilisation. India thus received the light of civilisation when most other countries of the world were steeped in the darkness of ignorance. The lofty mountains and the seas that shut the country off from the world outside not only rendered the Hindu civilisation at once original and unique in character but also allowed time to the Hindu institutions to become deep rooted and in great measure able to withstand the modifying influences of later invaders. The most striking feature of this civilisation was the prominence it gave to spirit over matter—to the abstract sciences over the practical arts of life. This was probably due to the absence of any keen struggle for existence which enabled the people to maintain at the head of their society a thinking class that made light of worldly concerns and devoted themselves wholly to philosophical contemplation.

Its
character

But these advantages have unhappily been fruitful sources also of misfortune. The wealth of the country attracted in all ages invaders from less favoured climes while the enervating influence of the climate told upon the people and rendered them a comparatively easy prey to the invading forces. It is also a noteworthy fact that when any vigorous attempt has been made within the country to shake off the foreign yoke, it has been chiefly made either by brave inhabitants of the desert like the Rajputs or of the rugged hilly regions like the Mahrattas.

PRE-ARYAN PERIOD.

THE ABORIGINES OF INDIA — IMMIGRATION FROM
THE NORTH EAST AND THE NORTH WEST

The Aryan Conquest

The three Non-Aryan Races — In ages long gone by—how long none can tell—India was inhabited by rude tribes who lived in caves and jungles. They were unacquainted with the use of metals and were almost as wild as the savage beasts among whom they lived. To these succeeded, in after ages, races of men who could boast at least of some rudiments of civilisation. Two of these races came through the north eastern passes of the Himalayas,—the Tibeto-Burmans and the Kolarians. The Tibeto-Burmans came from Central Asia and belonged to the stock from which the Mongolians and the Chinese have sprung. They are now represented by the Kukis, the Nagas, the Lepchas, the Bhutias and other allied tribes who still live on the outskirts of the Himalayas. The Kolarians on the other hand, were the ancestors of the Mundas, the Santals and kindred tribes, who are now chiefly found along the north-eastern edge of the Deccan plateau. These were a primitive people representing the childhood of human society. They did not know how to tame cattle, but they had learnt the use of iron, from which they made rude implements to till the ground and make clearings in the jungles.

Stone Age

Tibeto
Burmans

Kolarians

Dravidians. Another race with a much higher civilisation came through the north-western gates. They were the ancestors of the Tamil, the Telugu, the Kanarese and the Malayalam speaking people of Southern India, and are now known under the general name of the Dravidians. Their home was probably some distant region in Upper Asia. They entered the Punjab and gradually pushed their way southward and eastward. They had forts and strongholds and their settlements were ruled over by kings. Agriculture and the tending of cattle formed their principal occupation, and the productive earth, under the symbol of the serpent, was one of the chief objects of their worship.

Aryans. The Aryans conquer the country—Lastly came the Aryans, with a still higher civilisation. They entered India through the north western passes, conquering and pushing back the races whom they found in possession of the country. There was a long series of sharp conflicts between the fair complexioned invaders and the dark-skinned natives, at the end of which the former found themselves masters of Northern India. They did not, however, find it so easy to conquer Southern India, which continued, for long ages, to be ruled by the Dravidians. Some of the defeated Non-Aryans became slaves to the conquerors, and were gradually Hinduised, while others took shelter in hills and forests, leaving the plains to their victors. The former have become the lower strata of Hindu society, while the latter are represented by the various hill-tribes of India. Traces of these conflicts are still to be found in the Rig-veda—the earliest literature of the Indo-Aryans—where the conquered

Aryans
vs
Non Aryans

people are described by various scornful epithets, as *rakshasas* (demons), *dasyus* (enemies), etc. . . .

Who the Aryans were.—The primitive home of the Aryans is supposed by some to have been Central Asia * There the, ancestors of the Greeks, the Romans, the English and most other European nations on the one hand, and of the Persians and the high caste Hindus on the other hand, dwelt together, spoke the same language, and followed the same religion. The common origin of these peoples is indicated not only by the similarity of their mythologies and of the shape of the skulls, but also by their languages which, diverse as they seem, contain many words that may be traced to the same roots. It is from the study of these common words, and of the common mythologies, that much of our knowledge about the primitive Aryans is derived.

Aryan
Stock.

The Aryan Migrations.—Long before we have any historical record, the Aryans, when they grew too numerous to live together, started in different bands at different times in various directions to form new settlements. Several bands went north-west and conquered and settled in Europe; they are known in history under the name of Greeks, Romans, Teutons, Slavs and Celts. Those who remained gradually spread themselves towards the south-east till they passed into Northern India. A flood of light on the earliest movements of the Aryans who came to India is thrown by the Boghaz-koï inscriptions (cir

European
branches.

Eastern
branches.

* Various places, such as the Arctic regions, the banks of the Volga, Austria-Hungary etc, are supposed by others to have been the original home of the Aryans.

1400 B C) containing the names of the Vedic deities, Indra, Varuna, and the Nasatyas. Differences, however, soon broke out among the Eastern Aryans, dividing them into two sections. One of these settled in Persia and the adjoining parts, and formed what is called the Iranian branch of the Aryan family, the other spread over the Punjab and the Ganges Valley and thus became the fore fathers of the higher class Hindus—the Brahmans, the Kshattriyas and the Vaisyas. Thousands of years afterwards, some of the descendants of the former were, however, compelled, when hard pressed by Muhammadan invaders, to flee from their country and seek an asylum in India. Their Indo-Aryan brethren received them hospitably, and they settled in Gujarat and other parts of Western India under the name of Parsis. They now form a small but influential section of the Indian community.

Iranians

Indo-Aryans

Parsis

HINDU PERIOD.

CHAPTER I.

Early Hindu Settlements

Early Hindu History obscure.—The history of Hindusthan begins with the advent of the Aryans into India. But the ancient history of the Hindus is wrapped in great obscurity, as the early Hindus have left us no historical records of their doings. The principal materials from which we may try to construct an early Hindu history are to be found in the ancient coins and inscriptions, the account of early foreign travellers and the literature of the early Hindus. This literature includes the religious works, such as the Vedas, semi-historical epics, such as the Ramayana and the Mahabharata, and works on law and customs, such as the Institutes of Manu.

Sources
of early
history.

The earliest Aryan Settlement —We learn from the Rig-Veda, the oldest book of the Hindus, that the earliest Indo-Aryan settlement was in the Punjab and the adjoining region between the rivers Kubha (the Kabul) and the Ganges. No one can tell with precision at what time this settlement took place, but it is supposed by some to have occurred at least two thousand years before Christ.

Aryans in
the Punjab.

The Aryan occupation of Northern India a gradual process—The Hindus, however, did not rest content with their settlement in the Punjab. They soon began to spread, as their later works—the Brahmanas and Sutras—tell us, on the banks of the Ganges towards the south-east, till they made themselves masters of the whole of Northern India. The new settlements included Kuru (Meerut and Delhi), Panchala (Rohilkhand and Farrukhabad), Surasena (Muttra), Matsya (Jaipur), Kosala (Oudh), Kasi, (Benares), Videha (North Behar), Magadha (South-Bihar), Anga (East-Bihar), Vanga (Bengal) and Kalinga (the Orissa Coast bordering on the Bay of Bengal). The whole region between the Himalayas and the Vindhya was thus colonised, and afterwards called by the name of *Aryavarta* or the land of the Aryas. It must be understood however, that the work of conquest and settlement was a very slow and gradual process. The different stages of the Aryan settlement in Northern India are indicated by the following lines of Manu — The space between the two divine rivers, the Saraswati and the Drishadwati (Chitang) that God created tract they call *Brahmavarta* (the land frequented by gods). Kurukshetra, Matsya, Panchala and Surasena,—this land which comes next to *Brahmavarta* is *Brahmarshadesa* (the land of divine sages). The tract between the Himalaya and the Vindhya to the east of Vinasana (the place where the Saraswati terminates) and to the west of Prayaga (Allahabad), is called *Madhyadesa* (the central region). The space between these two mountain ranges, to the eastern and the western sea,

aryan
settlements
in Northern
India

the wise know as Aryavarta (the land of the Aryas)
All else is Mlechchhadesa (the land of the unclean)"

The Aryans at last enter Southern India—
Hindu traditions point to the great sage Agastya as
the first Aryan who introduced Hindu science and
civilisation into the country south of the Vindhya
The great Brahman warrior, Parasurama, is also said
to have colonised the Malabar coast These are,
however, pure legends, and we are not sure how far
they may be accepted as historical facts Nor is it
safe to come to any chronological conclusion about
the Aryan intercourse with the Deccan from the
incidents related in the great Epics, Ramayana and
Mahabharata Vidarbha or Berar seems to have
been the first Aryan settlement south of the Vindhya,
and Dandakaranya or Maharashtra the next The
Hindus also penetrated farther south and introduced
their arts and civilisation among the Non Aryans,
but their subjugation of that part of the country
was only partial

Aryan
Settlements
in Southern
India



CHAPTER II

CIVILISATION OF THE EARLY HINDUS

The Rig-Veda the earliest great literary work of the Hindus —The Hindus attained to a considerable degree of intellectual progress at the time of their first settlement in India. The earlier parts of their oldest book, the *Rig veda Samhita* are supposed by some to have been composed even before their separation from their Iranian brethren. The book is a collection of hymns composed by various sages called *Rishis* to whom they are supposed to have been revealed. These hymns are over 1000 in number and are addressed to various *devatas* or deities such as *Agni* (Fire), *Varuna* (Sky) *Savita* (Sun) *Maruts* (Storm winds) *Indra* (Rain god) and *Usha* (Dawn). The work was completed during the time when the Hindus were still confined to the Punjab and the Upper Doab and it gives us an insight into the social and political condition of the period.

The other Vedas and their relation to the Rig-veda —Three other Vedas were afterwards added—the *Sama* the *Yajur* and the *Atharva*. These Vedas are all derived more or less from the Rig veda. Some of the hymns of the Rig veda were chanted at sacrifices and were known as *Samas*. These *Samas* form the *Sama veda*. The *Yajur veda* contains songs from the Rig veda as well as sacrificial formulas in prose. The *Atharva veda* is also written in prose.

Rig veda

Sama veda

Yajur veda

and verse, many of its verses being simply taken from the Rîg-veda

Atharva
veda

Every Veda consists of two parts, namely, the *Sanhita* and the *Brahmana*. The *Sanhitas* are collections of hymns, while the *Brahmanas* explain the details of the Vedic sacrifices and expound the meanings of the Vedic hymns. The *Brahmanas* are written in prose and are, next to the Yajur-veda, the earliest specimens of prose literature in India that we possess

Brahmanas

The Hindus cultivate science from the earliest times — The Vedic literature abounds not only in codes of law and ritual, but also in speculations in philosophy, astronomy, grammar and philology. When the wars with the Non Aryans were practically over, and the Hindus were beginning to settle down in peace and order, these laws, rituals and speculations took a well defined scientific form. The philosophical thoughts were embodied in the treatises called *Upanishads*, which form the basis of the Hindu monotheistic doctrines, while the *Vedangas*, so called because subsidiary to the study of the Vedas, moulded into a definite shape the laws and rituals, as well as the speculations in grammar, philology and astronomy. The *Vedangas* are six in number — one treats of law and ritual another of astronomy, and the rest of philology and grammar. The laws and rituals were reduced to a concise form in the treatises known as the *Kalpasutras*. The science of grammar reached a high development in the work of Panini, while philology received a thoroughly scientific treatment in the *Nirukta* of Yaska. In astronomy, the great

Upanishads.

Vedangas.

Kalpasutras

Grammar
and
Philology.

Astronomy

antiquity of Hindu observations is admitted on all hands and we still possess a portion of the writings of the old astronomer Parasara who lived long before Varahamihara

Mathematics

The scientific turn of mind which the ancient Hindus exhibited in the works already mentioned, was also displayed in other branches of knowledge. In arithmetic, the world is indebted to the Hindus for the invention of the Decimal Notation which was afterwards borrowed from them by the Arabs through whom it was introduced into Europe. Geometry originated from the rules for the construction of altars, the shapes of which had to be varied for sacrificial purposes while knowledge of anatomy took its rise in the dissection of the victim at the sacrifice. The science of music was highly cultivated and a regular system of notation was invented which afterwards found its way into the west. The treatises discussing the sciences of medicine music and war are known as *Upavedas* and are regarded as supplementary to the Vedas.

Anatomy

Music

Upavedas.

The *Smritis* —Manu Sanhita —The *Kalpasutras* mentioned above were, in later times replaced by treatises on law called *Smritis* or things remembered. They are so called to distinguish them from the Vedas which are known as *Śrutis* or things heard that is revealed, for, while the Vedas are supposed to have been directly revealed to the sages the *Smritis* are regarded as traditions based on these revelations. Much information about the social polity of the early Hindus may be gathered from these *Smriti* works. The first and foremost among these works is the

Śruti and Smriti

Manu-sanhita or the Code of Manu. It gives a valuable picture of the Hindu society not only of the period during which it was compiled, but also of the earlier times.

The two great Epics and their influence.—The other important compositions of this period are the two great Epics, the *Ramayana* and the *Mahabharata*. The author of the *Ramayana* is the "great sage Valmiki, and the *Mahabharata* is ascribed to the illustrious Vyasa. No works are more popular still; none have exercised a greater influence on the national life of the Hindus than these two great Epics. What adds to their historical importance is the picture of Hindu social and political organisation which they present.

Valmiki and
Vyasa.

The Story of the *Ramayana*.—Dasaratha, a king of the Ikshvaku family of Ayodhya, had four sons, the eldest of whom was Rama. The king desired to crown Rama as *yuvaraja* or heir-apparent, but his second queen interfered, and, on the strength of a promise previously made by the king to grant her two boons, secured the banishment of Rama for fourteen years and the nomination of her son Bharata as *yuvaraja*. Accordingly, the dutiful son, Rama, followed by his faithful wife, Sita, and his obedient half brother, Lakshmana, left the kingdom amidst the wailings of the people, the old king himself succumbing to the shock. Rama retired to the Dandaka forest (the modern Mahratta country) where the beautiful Sita was stolen away from him by Ravana, the *rakshasa* king of Ceylon. Rama allied himself with the "monkeys" or the wild tribes of Kishkindhya

Ikshvakus of
Ayodhya.

(the modern Bellary district) and with their help rescued Sita after Ravana himself had been killed. Then¹ returning to Ayodhya, Rama assumed the reins of government from the faithful Bharata, who, all the while loyal to Rama, had declined all royal honours and carried on the government only as a regent for Rama.

The Story of the Mahabharata —The Mahabharata describes the struggle between the Kauravas and the Pandavas,—two offshoots of the Kuru family of Hastinapur. The hundred Kauravas were the sons of Dhritarashtra, while the five Pandavas were the sons of his younger brother, Pandu. Dhritarashtra was born blind and was therefore excluded from the throne in favour of Pandu. But Pandu died in the life-time of Dhritarashtra, who thenceforth acted as a guardian of his nephews, and chose the eldest of them, Yudhishtira, as heir to the family dominions. The eldest Kaurava, Duryodhana, resented this and tried various expedients to get rid of the Pandavas. Matters at length came to such a crisis that the God-fearing Pandavas, in spite of their efforts to bring about peace, were compelled to declare war. Almost all the Kshattriya princes of India fought on one side or the other, and a great battle, lasting for eighteen days, was fought in the field of Kurukshetra. All the Kauravas were killed, and Yudhishtira ascended the throne.

The Gita —The most prominent figure, however, in the Mahabharata, is Srikrishna, who is still regarded as an *Avatara* or divine incarnation by the Hindus. He espoused the just cause of the Pandavas and tried

Kurus of
Hastinapur

Battle of
Kurukshetra

Srikrishna.

to establish a *Dharmaraja* or empire governed on righteous principles after rooting out the tyranny and misrule of numerous wicked princes. His philosophy is embodied in the *Gita* which is inserted in the *Mahabharata*, as his advice to his friend Arjuna, younger brother of Yudhishtira and which tries to reconcile the various conflicting religious tenets that divide mankind. The main principles of the *Gita* are that self must give way before one's appointed duty to mankind, that the soul never dies, that perfection can be attained by self-culture, and that every form of worship if sincerely offered is acceptable to God. The religion taught by Srikrishna obtained wide celebrity in pre-Christian centuries and even Greeks like Heliodoros of Taxila embraced the new faith.

Its
teachings

Heliodoros
a worshipper
of Srikrishna

The morals of the great Epics — Both the *Ramajana* and the *Mahabharata* reveal the high moral tone that pervaded the early Hindu society. In them we read how the kings strove hard to win the good will of their subjects, who were on their part devotedly loyal to their sovereigns. The laws of war were extremely honourable and humane; unfair fighting was strictly prohibited, and no violence or plunder was allowed. Unflinching devotion of wife to husband, of brother to brother, and of son to father are among the principal virtues taught in the great epics.

Lofty moral
ideal

Social and Political life of the early Hindus — In the time of the *Rig veda* the caste system was not well organised, if indeed it existed at all. The same man might be a priest, warrior, and husbandman. The women of the upper classes were educated and held in great respect. They sometimes even performed

The Vedic
Age

sacrifices and composed hymns. The people led very simple lives. Agriculture formed their principal occupation, and cattle constituted their chief wealth. Several of the industrial and fine arts were also cultivated. Mention is made in the Rig veda of artisans, goldsmiths, blacksmiths, weavers, carpenters, and barbers. The Aryan settlers were mostly gathered in the *gramas* or villages, while outside the village was the *aranya*, the forest or waste which belonged to no body. Towns in the modern sense hardly existed, though there were strongholds and fortified camps. Each family had its own house, and several families living together formed a *grama*. Several *gramas* seem to have formed a clan, and sometimes several clans united together. Each village community was under a headman (*gramani*), and each clan or union of clans usually under a king. The kings were generally hereditary, though they were sometimes elected. They led the armies to battle, and received booty and tribute. They presided over *samitis* or public assemblies, held in public halls where discussions took place, as well as social amusements. The internal administration of the village was probably not much unlike what it was later on, a picture of which has been preserved in the Code of Manu, and traces of which are to be met with even to the present day. Each village conducted its own internal affairs and was in itself a state in miniature.

Division of Labour develops the Caste System —

By the time the great epics were composed, an important change had taken place in the social organisation of the Hindus. As the people became

Arts

Mode of
settlement,

Government,

Village
Community

The Epic

more numerous, and society more complex, necessity arose for a division of labour. This led to a development of the caste system, and the people, who had at first been mainly divided only into two sections, the "white skinned" *Aryas* and the "dark skinned" *Anaryas*, were gradually divided into four well defined castes—the Brahmins, the Kshatriyas, the Vaisyas, and the Sudras. Those who had their mental faculties sufficiently developed to get by heart the hymns of the Vedas were generally engaged in performing sacrifices, and came to be known as *Brahmins*. Those who had a warlike spirit and acquired skill in the use of arms, took upon themselves the work of fighting and defence, and became known as *Kshatriyas*. The rest of the Aryans went by the name of *Vaisyas* and followed tillage and trade as their callings. The Hinduised Non Aryans formed the *Sudra* or the servile caste. Among these four castes, the Brahmin soon came to occupy the highest place, and his voice became supreme in matters of religion, legislation and justice. The Kshatriyas occupied the next place and were entrusted with the protection of the country and the administration of public affairs. The Brahmins, the Kshatriyas, and the Vaisyas alone were recognised as members of the community, they were spoken of as "twice-born," and were entitled to read the scriptures. The Sudras had to earn a living by serving these three castes. The caste distinction seems to have separated only individuals at first, but it soon became hereditary and separated families.

Brahmins

Kshatriyas

Vaisyas.

Sudras.

Gradation of
the society.

Struggle for Overlordship.—Another change that characterised the age of the Epics was that the

kingdoms had become larger and better defined than before, and an internecine struggle for supremacy had already begun. Some of the kings had become more powerful than others and laid claim to overlordship under the name of *Rajachakravarti* or *Mandalesvar*. The ceremony by which these overlords generally asserted their supremacy over the minor kings was the performance of either of the sacrifices known as *Rajasuya* and *Asvamedha**. In the former case, the overlord called upon the under kings to come and discharge some menial offices at the ceremony, in the latter case he let loose a horse to roam all over the country, challenging every other prince to seize it if he dared. Such a suzerainty was claimed by the Ikshvaku family of Kosala in the time of the Ramayana, and by the Kuru family of Hastinapur in the time of the Mahabharata.

The Hindus early formed the conception of one God—The idea of the unity of the godhead was early conceived by the Hindus, and several hymns in the Rig veda are addressed to the Supreme Being. The Hindus of the Vedic age generally worshipped, as manifestations of the Divinity, the sky, fire, the sun and whatever was glorious and beautiful in nature. The method of worship was very simple and consisted in offering prayers and libations of *soma* juice and occasional sacrifices of goats, sheep and horses. The immortality of the soul, the consciousness of sin and the belief that God can take away the burden of sin were prominent features in their religion. But the

* The *Asvamedha* ceremony was, however, ostensibly performed to atone for the sin of killing a Brahman.

Rajachakra-
varti

Rajasuya
and Asva-
medha

Religion of
the Vedas

Vedic worship had lost much of its simplicity by the time of the Brahmanas, when great importance was given to the various rites and observances connected with the performance of sacrifices. These, however, did not absorb the whole attention of the people. The learned among them started philosophical enquiries into the nature of the Infinity, and the results of their labours were embodied in the *Upanishads*, where the monotheistic doctrines of the Hindus are seen in all their excellence.

of the
Brahman as,

of the
Upanishads

The ancient Hindus had a high moral ideal — The lofty moral ideal as set forth in the great epics had already been referred to. Truth and duty were greatly valued by the early Hindus. "Truth," says the Rig Veda, "is the support of the universe." Hospitality to strangers and the sacredness of a promise or a contract were insisted upon in the strongest terms. The boys were carefully educated under the system which survives in the modern *lots*. The people in general were simple, truthful and law abiding. The whole life of a Brahman was a strict school of discipline. In the *Kalpasutras* a Brahman's life is divided into four stages, the *Brahmacharya* or the life of discipline and study, the *Garhasthya* or the married life, the *Vanaprastha* or the recluse life in the forest, and the *Yati* or the life of devotion and contemplation. In the first stage, he had to abstain from all worldly pleasures and to acquire religious training from his preceptor, whom he had to serve with implicit obedience. In the second stage, he was allowed to marry, but even then he was not permitted to indulge in any worldly pleasure. He had

Brahmanical
discipline,

Brahma
charya.

Garhasthya

to spend his time in reading the Vedas and performing religious sacrifices In the third stage, he had to live as an anchorite in the woods, feeding on roots and fruits and fulfilling the prescribed forms and ceremonies of religion under all sorts of hardships and mortifications In the last stage, he led a peaceful life of religious contemplation

Vanaprastha

Yati.

INDIA in the early Buddhist age.

Natural Scale 1:25,000,000.

English Miles

0 50 100 200 300 400

— Ancient Trade Routes



CHAPTER III

POLITICAL HISTORY OF INDIA FROM THE SIXTH CENTURY B C TO THE DEATH OF HARSHAVARDHAN

Imperial Dynasties of Ancient India

Character of the political history of India —

From the earliest times India has been divided into numerous small kingdoms each under a prince of its own and there has been many a struggle among these princes resulting occasionally in the establishment of overlordship by some dynasty or line of kings over a large number of kingdoms. But this paramount power could be retained only so long as the reigning king was powerful enough to keep down the dependent princes who were naturally ever ready to assert their independence. A succession of weak rulers would invariably end in the overthrow of the dynasty, and either a new family would at once step into its place and found a new empire or the country would again be split up into a large number of independent minor kingdoms. In the latter case, a general disturbance would follow, tempting the hardy races from the north to pour into the country with an overwhelming force. They would come generally with no other object than plunder, but occasionally they would settle in the country and even usurp the sovereign power, establishing themselves and the seat of their central government, naturally, in the fertile plains of Northern India. But, as has

Breaking up
and
building up
of empires.

already been remarked, the enervating influence of the plains sooner or later tells upon the body and the mind. In course of time, the new settlers would themselves be weakened and succumb either to a successful insurrection or to another powerful foreign invasion from the north.

Illustrations of the above—Confirmation and illustration of what we have said meet us at almost every step as we proceed in our study of the political history of the country. Thus the overthrow of the imperial dynasties of ancient India, of which we shall presently speak, was followed by the splitting up of the country into a large number of independent minor kingdoms, which, after some time, yielded to the hardy Turk invaders from Afghanistan. The latter established an empire which, after a time, was in like manner dismembered, paving the way for the Moghul sovereignty. Once more since then history has repeated itself, the Moghul suzerainty was totally undermined by the successful insurrection of the Mahrattas and the ambition of provincial governors, India again fell to pieces, till at last the British stepped in, and established themselves in paramount power.

The political history becomes more definite from the sixth century B C—Our information about the political history of India before the sixth century B C is necessarily very meagre. We can glean only a few isolated facts like the supremacy of the Kurus and of the Ikshvakus and their wars and conquests. But from the sixth century onwards the historical materials become more ample and the political history assumes a more definite shape.

Rapid
review of
political
history.

In this century India was parcelled out into a number of kingdoms and republics owing no allegiance to a common superior. Amongst the republics the most important was the Licchhavi state of Vaisali (in North Behar) while amongst the monarchies Kosala appears to have been the most powerful. The Ikshvakus were ruling here and they had considerably increased their power by subjugating the neighbouring kingdom of Kasi. They were however soon overshadowed by the rulers of Magadha who had their capital at Rajagriha. The founder of the Magadhan imperial power was Bimbisara who began to rule about the middle of the sixth century B.C. It was his son Ajatasatru who humbled the kingdom of Kosala. Ajatasatru carried his victorious arms far and wide and the whole region between the Ganges and the Himalayas acknowledged the supremacy of Magadha. He built a fortress at the village of Patali (site of modern Patna) round which afterwards grew up the famous city of Pataliputra, also known as Kusumapur or Pushapur. It was in the reigns of Bimbisara and Ajatasatru that Buddha and Mahavira, the founders respectively of Buddhism and Jainism, lived and preached their religion. Ajatasatru, who ascended the throne a few years before Buddha's death, is said to have been at first a persecutor of the Buddhists but later on a convert. Towards the close of the reign of Bimbisara, Darius King of Persia, invaded the north western part of India and subdued some races dwelling on the right bank of the Indus. It is said that the invader exacted a large tribute from his Indian province.

Republics

Kingdom of
KosalaKingdom of
Magadha

Bimbisara.

Ajatasatru

Pataliputra.

Darius's
invasion

Mahapadma
Nanda

The Empire of the Nandas —The history of the Sisunagas who ruled in Magadha after the immediate successors of Ajatasatru, is obscure. In the middle of the fourth century B C their throne was usurped by Mahapadma Nanda, who was of Sudra origin. To him succeeded his eight sons. It was during the reign of the last Nanda king that Alexander the Great invaded India.

Invasion of
Alexander
the Great.

Alexander was the king of Macedon in Europe and was a great conqueror. After conquering Greece and Persia, he entered India by its north western gate in 327 B C. He crossed the Indus sixteen miles above Attock without much opposition from the Punjab princes, whose mutual jealousies and wars prevented them from offering any combined resistance to the invader. The prince of Taxila submitted to Alexander, but a powerful king, bearing the family name of Puru (which the Greeks called Poros) opposed him on the banks of the Jhelam. Bravely as the Indians fought, they could not withstand the discipline of the Greek army. Puru was captured and brought before Alexander who asked him how he wished to be treated. 'Like a king,' answered the proud prince. Alexander was so much pleased with the answer that he not only restored the king to his kingdom, but also enlarged its extent. The conqueror then proceeded eastward and pushed on to the Beas. But his weary troops could not be induced to advance further, although Alexander himself was anxious to invade the powerful kingdom of Magadha. So turning his back upon the Ganges plain and its cities, Alexander marched his troops down the Indus, subjugating various warlike tribes.

His fight
with Puru.

on his way In 325 B C he left India On his death in 323 B C a partition was made of his dominions among his generals of whom Seleucus Nikator obtained Syria, Bactria and the Indian territories

His empire
partitioned

Seleucus
Nikator

Chandragupta founds the Maurya Dynasty —

When Alexander was in the Punjab an exile from the court of Magadha called Chandragupta, joined him and lived with him for some time This adventurer was a scion of the Maurya clan of Pippalivana, and is represented in some late works as a kinsman of the reigning king of Magadha, whose displeasure he had incurred by his insolent behaviour As soon as the news of Alexander's death reached India, he headed a general rising against the Macedonian authority in the Punjab and wrested the country from the foreigners He also turned his arms against his enemy, the king of Magadha, and with the assistance of a Brahman, named Chanakya, who afterwards became his minister, overthrew the Nanda

Early life of
Chandra
gupta

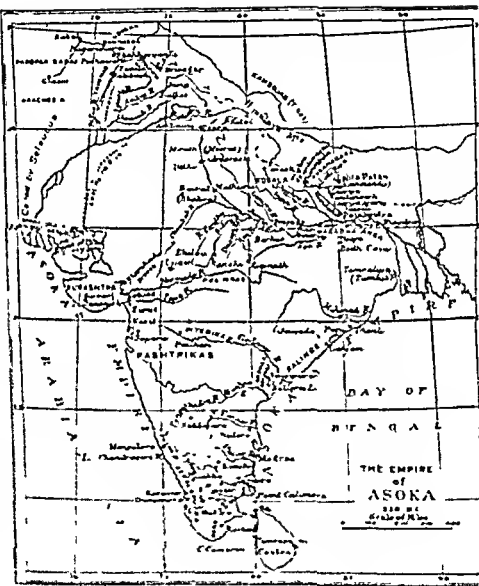
dynasty about 322 B C The dynasty which he founded at Pataliputra is known as the Maurya dynasty, Maurya being the name of the kshattriya clan to which he belonged The popular derivation of the name 'Maurya' from Mura is not corroborated by the ancient Pali literature He was a very powerful prince and soon became the master of the whole of Northern India, and a large part of Afghanistan Seleucus made repeated attempts to restore the Greek authority in India but he was several times defeated and was at last obliged to come to terms In exchange for a number of elephants the Greek king renounced his claim over the Indian territories, and

Chanakya

Fight bet
ween Greeks
and Hindus

he contracted a matrimonial alliance with the Hindu prince. He also deputed an ambassador called Megasthenes to Chandragupta's court. Megasthenes lived in India for some years and wrote a valuable account of India of which fragments are still preserved in the works of some subsequent writers. A summary of this account including a description of the administration of Chandragupta is given in the next chapter.

Asoka the Great—Chandragupta reigned for twenty four years and was succeeded by his son Bindusara in the year 297 B. C. In 272 B. C. Asoka the Great ascended the throne of Pataliputra though he was not formally crowned till the fourth year of his reign. He was the second son of Bindusara but Radhagupta his father's minister placed him in power to the exclusion of his elder brother who had 'offended the minister'. Asoka was one of the greatest kings India has ever seen. It is said that in early life Asoka was of a violent temper and that upon his accession he put most of the royal family to death. But when he was engaged in the conquest of Kalinga (the Orissa coast bordering on the Bay of Bengal) the sight of the horrible bloodshed and suffering made a deep impression upon his mind. The quiet happy life of Buddhist monks served to intensify this impression and a thorough change came over his temper and character. Late in life he was initiated into Buddhism by a sage called Upagupta and from that time he became a strenuous advocate of his new faith.



What Asoka did for Buddhism — Asoka not only made Buddhism the state religion, but also adopted vigorous measures for its propagation. *Bhikshus* or Buddhist monks were sent as missionaries to all the countries then known to him. Thus South-east India, Afghanistan, and the Greek countries of Western Asia, South-East Europe and North Africa were visited by Asoka's missionaries. Asoka even induced Mahendra his brother (or according to some, his son) to embrace monasticism and sent him Ceylon to preach the new faith. He spent vast sums of money in endowing monasteries and in maintaining monks and preachers, and himself joined the Order before his death.

Buddhist
mission
work

What Asoka did for the people — Asoka has left to us a record of his administration in his edicts engraved on rocks, pillars and caves throughout his empire. These edicts, which were chiefly intended for the moral and religious advancement of the people, show how great and good a king Asoka was. In them he proclaimed universal religious toleration and moral persuasion as the best means of converting unbelievers, and extolled and insisted upon absolute purity of life. What he preached he practised himself. He dug wells and planted trees along the roads, he established hospitals for men and beasts and strictly prohibited the slaughter of animals, he refrained himself from all cruel sports, abolished the royal hunt, discouraged observance of those ceremonies in which animals were sacrificed and forbade prisoners to be tortured. He looked upon his subjects as his children and declared himself ready to hear their complaints at any

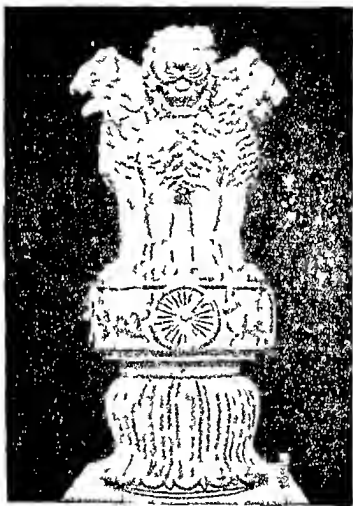
Asoka's
edicts

His good
works

hour during the day or night. He severely reproved all officials who were found guilty of indolence, rudeness or cruelty. He established a state department to watch over the conduct and the morals of his subjects. One of his most important reforms was the institution of periodical tours for the improvement of the religious and social condition of the people. A grand assembly was also held at Pataliputra, to prevent schism in the Buddhist church. The great king died in or about 231 B. C., leaving an empire which extended not only over the whole of Northern India, but over the greater portion of the Deccan as well.

Bactrian Greeks in India—Some six or seven kings of the Maurya dynasty ruled after Asoka. Under them the empire became weak, and the Bactrian Greeks began to pour into India. These came from the country between the Hindukush and the Amu Daria. They had formerly been subjects of Seleucus and his successors but had become independent about the middle of the third century B. C. Shortly after the death of Asoka, they wrested the Maurya territories in Afghanistan and under their kings Demetrius and Menander they became so powerful that they conquered even a portion of Northern India including the Punjab and Sind. They founded several small principalities within the country, and about the middle of the second century B. C., succeeded in annexing the Indus Delta and Gujarat, advanced as far as Rajputana and even threatened Pataliputra. But their progress was at last checked by Pushyamitra, the founder of the Sunga dynasty.

Pushyamitra of Magadha



IRON CAPITAL.

The Sungas, the Kanvas and the Satavahanas — Originally the general of the last Maurya king, Pushyamitra, had treacherously killed his master and secured the power for his own family in 184 B C. He tried to revive the Brahmanical faith and is said to have celebrated the ancient rite of *asvamedha* as a mark of his power. Nine kings of his family ruled after him, the last king was murdered in 72 B C and his throne was seized by his Brahman minister, Vasudev, who founded a new dynasty known as the Kanva dynasty. The Kanvas ruled for forty-five years, at the end of which the family was overthrown by the so-called Andhras or Satavahanas.

Sunga
Dynasty

Kanva
Dynasty

The Satavahanas came from the South — The Satavahanas came from Maharashtra in the Deccan. The early history of the Deccan resembles that of Northern India. It shows us the same picture of several independent kingdoms with the occasional suzerainty of some powerful state. In the extreme south of the peninsula, there existed, from very ancient times, three important states, the Chera, Chola and the Pandya. The Chera and the Chola kingdoms occupied respectively the western and the eastern sea-board, and the Pandya lay south of them. In later times, the Pallavas, rose to power at Kanchi (Conjeveram). After the disruption of the Maurya empire, the Satavahanas began to be powerful in the Mahratta country and finally established an empire in Southern India. They asserted their independence under their great leader Simuka whose son Satakarni I performed the *asvamedha* or horse sacrifice. They soon extended their territories from the Arabian

Early
history of
the Deccan

Chera,
Chola and
Pandya
kingdoms

Pallava
kingdom

Simuka and
Satakarni I.

(the writer of the *Buddha Charita*) and Nagarjuna (the founder of the *Mahayana* School of Buddhism) lived in his court. The Kushan empire began to decline about the end of the second century A D though its power lasted in the region of Kabul till the fifth century A D.

Origin of the Sakabda — The Saka Era — One of the most celebrated eras that are still current all over India is the *Sakabda* or the Saka Era. It begins from 78 A D and probably marks the consolidation of the Kushan Empire by Kanishka. There is another theory, according to which the era was established by the Saka satraps of Gujarat when they threw off their allegiance to the Indo Parthian kings who were weakened by the attacks of the Kushan kings.

Gautami putra. The Last Days of the Satavahanas — The Satavahanas ruled in Southern India for three or four centuries, during which they had frequent struggles with the Scythians. About 124 A D, one of their kings, Gautamiputra Satikarni destroyed the power of the Kshaharata satraps of Maharashtra who had established their authority in the beginning of the first century A D. Rudradaman, the grandson of Chashtana, who had founded another satrapy at Ujjain in Malwa, snatched away from the Satavahana king Pulumayi II, (son of Gautamiputra) a large portion of his dominions, including Gujarat, Malwa, and Konkan (150 A D). Afterwards Yajnasri, a successor of Pulumayi II, recovered some of the lost provinces from the Sakas, and the Satavahanas continued to rule in the Deccan till their power came to an end in the beginning of the third century A D.

Rudra daman

Yajnasri.

Chandra Gupta I. founds the Gupta Empire — The period that intervened between the fall of the Imperial Satavahanas and the rise of the Guptas is an obscure period. The latter event took place about the beginning of the fourth century A D, when a petty chief named Chandra Gupta, who had his capital at Pataliputra, married Kumaradevi, a princess belonging to the powerful Lichchhavi dynasty of Vaisali, and succeeded in raising his family to the imperial dignity. The name of his queen appears along with his in the coins that he struck as a token of his assumption of imperial power. He started a new era, known as the Gupta Era about 320 A D, the year of his coronation.

An obscure period.

Kumaradevi

Gupta Era.

Samudra Gupta the greatest Gupta Emperor.— Chandra Gupta was succeeded by his son Samudra Gupta, one of the greatest sovereigns of India, under whom the Gupta Empire rose to the height of its power. On his accession he began a career of conquest and soon reduced to submission almost all the kingdoms of Northern, as well as of Southern India. He received an embassy from Meghavarna, the Buddhist king of Ceylon, who requested permission to build a monastery at Bodhi Gaya for the benefit of the Ceylonese pilgrims. The result of the mission was the building of a grand monastery which existed for several centuries. Pataliputra still continued to be the official headquarters of the empire, but the extensive conquests of Samudra Gupta necessitated his residence in several more centrally-situated stations of which Ayodhya and Kausambi were perhaps the chief. At the latter city,

Extent of the Gupta Empire.

Intercourse with Ceylon

Allahabad
Prasasti

Indian
Napoleon.

he caused a record of his reign to be inscribed on an Asoka pillar that was standing there. This pillar is still to be found in the Allahabad Fort. Samudra Gupta was a versatile genius, he was a warrior, a poet and a musician and showed exceptional ability both as a general and an administrator. He has justly been called the "Napoleon of India."

Vikramaditya
Sakari

Chandra Gupta Vikramaditya — The third Gupta emperor was Chandra Gupta II (son of Samudra Gupta) who assumed the title of Vikramaditya. Some historians have identified him with Vikramaditya the Great who figures so prominently in the Hindu legends and whose court is said to have been adorned by "Nine Gems" of literature and science. One of the titles of Vikramaditya the Great was *Sakari* (or the destroyer of the Sakas), and Chandra Gupta could lay claim to this title as he brought to a close the power of the Saka satraps who were still ruling in Western India, by defeating and killing the last satrap, Rudrasinha, and annexing their territories including Malwa, and Gujarat. Fa-hien, the celebrated Chinese pilgrim, visited India during his reign and left an account from which much information about the country and its administration during this period may be gathered.

Fall of Saka
Satraps.

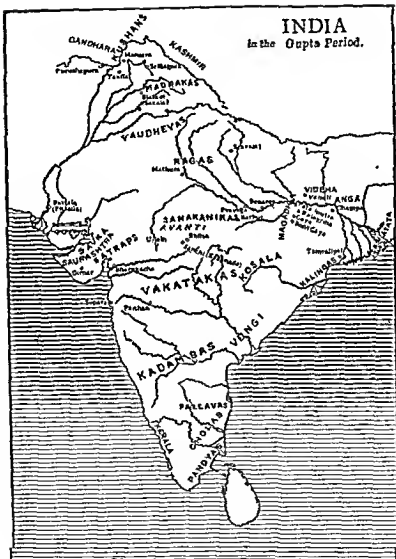
Fa hien

Kumara Gupta Mahendraditya — The successor of Chandragupta II was his son Kumara Gupta Mahendraditya who was able to retain his father's empire including the western provinces. Towards the close of Kumara's reign the Gupta power was temporarily eclipsed by the Pushyamitras. But the fortunes of the imperial family were restored by the

Pushya
tras

INDIA

In the Gupta Period.



Crown Prince Skanda Gupta who succeeded his father in 455 A D

Skanda Gupta Vikramaditya —Skanda Gupta was probably the last of the Great Guptas as Aurangzeb was the last of the Great Moghuls. He successfully defended his empire against the attacks of the Huns and other Mlechchhas, and is undoubtedly the original of king Vikramaditya son of Mahendraditya, whose achievements have been immortalised in the *Katha Sarit Sagara*. He died probably in 467 A D

The last Great Gupta emperor

Vikramaditya of the Kathasarit-sagara

Revival of Brahmanism under the Guptas —The Guptas professed the Bhagavata or Vaishnava religion, though they tolerated Buddhism and other heterodox systems. Under them Brahmanism began to revive and Buddhism declined. Like Pushyamitra Samudra Gupta, as well as his grandson Kumara Gupta (son of Chandra Gupta II), celebrated the ancient ceremony of *asvamedha*, which marked not only their sovereign power but also a reaction against Buddhist condemnation of animal sacrifice.

Revival of Asvamedha

The White Huns invade India —In the latter half of the fifth century, the Gupta power was on the decline taking advantage of which a Mongolian tribe from Central Asia, the White Huns, began to pour into India. They were of the same race to which the Hun invaders of Eastern Europe belonged. Skanda Gupta was able to repel their first attacks, but they repeated their assaults till the Gupta empire was thoroughly weakened and lost some of its provinces. One of the later Gupta Kings, Baladitya inflicted a crushing defeat on the Hun invaders in the first half of the sixth century A D

Decline of the Guptas.

Baladitya.

Toramana and Mihurakula —One of the most famous Indo Hun chiefs was Toramana. He was probably a feudatory of the great Hun king who ruled near Herat. After subjugating the Punjab, where he established his capital at Sakala, he proceeded south till he made himself master of Malwa at the close of the fifth century A D. He was succeeded by his son Mihurakula, who was also a great warrior like his father. His victorious career, however, received a sudden check by two great defeats that he sustained in the first half of the sixth century, and he was forced to flee and seek shelter in Kashmir, where he repaid the hospitality of the king by usurping his throne.

Yasodharman of Malwa —The hero who finally defeated Mihurakula and delivered Northern India from the oppression of the Hun invaders was Yasodharman. Inscriptions found at Mandasor in Malwa give the glory of the final victory to him. But we do not know with any certainty who this Yasodharman was. According to some historians, it is he, and not Chandra Gupta II, who can really claim to be the great Vikramaditya Sakari of the legends. They assert that he was a Malwan prince who was at first a feudatory of the Guptas, but after his great victory over the Huns established an empire with his capital at Ujjain, and assuming the title of Vikramaditya, changed the name of the old Malwan Era (which began in 58 B C) into that of the *Vikrama Era* as a token of his sovereign power. Others point out that Yasodharman had not the title Vikramaditya and was probably a vassal or an ally of Baladitya whom he might have helped in defeating the Huns. The Huns that remained in India after

Hun
conquests.

Who was the
real Vikra-
maditya.

Vikrama Era
or Samvat.

the break-up of their power were gradually Hinduised and became absorbed in the surrounding population

Hinduised
Huns

Harshavardhan, one of the greatest Hindu Emperors of Northern India —After the overthrow of the Huns, there was no paramount power in Northern India for some time. The country was broken up into a large number of small states which were engaged in constant strifes with one another. In the latter part of the sixth century A. D., Prabhakaravardhan, the king of Thaneswar, defeated the neighbouring kingdoms and rose to great power. He was succeeded by Rajyavardhan who was a prince of great promise, but shortly after his accession he fell a victim to the machination of his enemy, Sasanka, a king of Bengal. The next king was his brother Harshavardhan or Siladitya, who came to the throne in 606 A. D., from which year dates the Harsha Era, though his coronation took place six years after Harshavardhan removed his capital from Thaneswar

Small
kingdoms

Rise of
Thaneswar

Prabhakar-
vardhan

Rajya
vardhan.

Harsha Era

Quinquennial festival.

The king's charity

and the Jumna, a festival to which he invited all holy men and all the destitute and kinless. The festival began with great pomp, and was characterised throughout by the largest toleration. Though it was celebrated in honour of Buddha, yet due regard was also paid to the Hindu gods, and in distributing alms no distinction was made either of caste or creed. At the end of the festival, the king stripped himself of all his jewels and raiment, distributed them among the poor, and put on the rags of a mendicant, commemorating thereby the great renunciation of Buddha.

Harsha's empire

Harshavardhan's progress in the South stopped by the Chalukyas—Harshavardhan began to rule in 606 and reigned until about 647 A. D. His empire extended from the foot of the Kashmir hills to Assam and from Nepal to the Narbada. He even tried to extend his sovereignty over the Deccan, but here his progress was checked by the powerful Chalukyas.

Chalukyas of Badami.

The Chalukya Empire in the Deccan—These Chalukyas were a Kshatriya tribe who had, according to tradition, come to the Deccan originally from Oudh. Early in the sixth century A. D., three hundred years after the extinction of the imperial Satavahana dynasty, they established a powerful empire in the south, after subjugating the Kadambas of Banavasi (in North Kanara), the Mauryas of Konkan and the Katchchuris of Ujjain and Nasik. The first king of the Chalukya family was Jaysinha, but the real founder of the Chalukya empire was his grandson, Pulakesi, who lived about the middle of the sixth century. Pulakesi made Vatapi-pura, now Badami, his capital.

Pulakesi I

and performed a great *asvamedha* sacrifice The Emperor who repelled the invasion of Harshavardhan, was his grandson Pulakesi II who began to reign from 608 A D He appears to have been the greatest prince of this dynasty He not only repelled the attack of Harshavardhan, but extended his empire far and wide The Northern kingdoms of Gujarat, and Malwa, as well as the Southern kingdoms of Chera, Chola, Pandya Pallava and Vengi, all felt the weight of his arms His reputation spread even beyond the limits of India, and Khusrû, King of Persia, entered into friendly relations with him There is still a painting in the celebrated Ajanta caves, which depicts the reception of the Persian envoys at his court The Northern seat of his empire was probably at Nasik which was visited by Hiuen Tsang, while travelling in Southern India The last days of the great emperor were, however, not happy The Pallavas, with whom he had been fighting from the beginning of his reign and whom he had defeated so often, at last got the better of him and succeeded in defeating him and putting him to death in 642 A D But his son Vikramaditya I inflicted a crushing defeat upon the Pallavas and regained the power which the Chalukyas had lost

Pulakesi II.

Intercourse
with Persia.

Nasik.

Vikrama-
aditya I.

CHAPTER IV.

CIVILISATION OF THE HINDUS OF THE LATER TIMES

From the sixth century B C to the death of Harshavardhan.

Era of
Thought

The establishment of peace and order leads to the development of thought —When the wars with the Non-Aryans were over and the struggle for supremacy among the Aryans themselves became less keen, the people settled down to a peaceful life under the strong rule of the imperial dynasties. Men were now at leisure to turn their minds to the philosophical speculations for which the early part of this period is so pre-eminently noted. Buddhism and Jainism sprang up and soon attained great vigour, while, on the other hand, orthodox Hindus developed various *Darsanas* or schools of philosophy.

Orthodox
schools of
Philosophy

The Brahmans found six Schools of Philosophy —The orthodox schools of Hindu philosophy are six in number, viz, the *Sankhya* system of Kapila, the *Yoga* system of Patanjali, the *Nyaya* system of Gotama Akshapada, the *Vaisesika* system of Kanada, the *Purva Mimamsa* of Jaimini, and the *Uttara Mimamsa* or the *Vedanta* of Badarayana. They all profess to hold the Vedas and Upanishads in great veneration, and all have a common object in view, namely, to teach the means of obtaining *mukti* or complete deliverance from all miseries. These miseries, they

Their
teachings

assert, are the fruits of man's own *karma* or actions performed not only in this, but also in his previous births. As the miseries of the present life are not sufficient to wash away all sins, man is born again and again till he has reaped the fruits of all his deeds. The only way to escape from these repeated transmigrations is to acquire *tattvajñāna*, i. e., true and perfect knowledge, which consists in discriminating 'What I am' from 'What I am not'. These schools of Hindu philosophy have all been founded by Brahmans and are looked upon as orthodox, since they all profess to regard the Vedas as the highest spiritual authority.

Karma

Tattvajñāna

The Sannyasi teachers often differ from the Brahman teachers. — But there are other systems which, though Hindu in the main, are not regarded as orthodox. These systems generally originated in the preachings of such holy men of other castes as turned *Sannyasis* or mendicants and took upon themselves the work of teaching religion to the masses. These *Sannyasi* teachers often disagreed with the Brahmans, even in the fundamental doctrines of their faith, and their teachings have generally been decried by the latter as heretical.

Heterodox systems.

Gautama Buddha, the greatest of the Sannyasi teachers. — The most famous of these non-Brahmanical systems is Buddhism. Its founder was a Kshatriya prince named Siddhartha, better known as Gautama Buddha. He was son of Sudhodana, Raja of Kapilavastu, and was born in or about 563 B. C. at Lumbini Park (modern Rumminder) in the Nepalese Terai. He was from his very childhood given to contemplation and had deep sympathy for suffering humanity. His

Buddha's youth

father became alarmed at his serious turn of mind which grew more serious with his age, and he married him to an accomplished princess with whom he passed some happy years. But the sight of men suffering under old age, disease and death, inspired him again with a deep sense of the miseries of existence. He began to think how one could get rid of these evils.

Gautama renounces the world—At last the sight of the peaceful life of a *yogi* (ascetic) suggested to him a remedy and he determined to turn a mendicant. At the age of twenty nine, a child was born to him. Fearing lest this fresh tie should bind him closer to the world, one night he stole out of the palace, leaving his happy home behind, to work out salvation for himself and others. He first went to Rajagriha and learnt philosophy from a Brahman ascetic. But this did not satisfy him. He next repaired to the vicinity of Gaya, became an ascetic himself, and practised severe penances and mortifications for six years.

Gautama becomes Buddha—Finding no remedy in these practices, he gave himself up to contemplation, sitting under the famous Bo tree of Bodh Gaya. This contemplation at last brought to him the knowledge of the way of deliverance which he sought, and thenceforth he became known as Buddha or the Enlightened.

Buddha preaches—He then went to Benares and began to preach his doctrines. Soon he had a large number of followers, among whom were his own wife and son. Ajatasatru, king of Magadha, and Prasenajit, king of Kosala, embraced his religion and

His
Renuncia-
tion

His ascetic
practices

Bodh Gaya

The first
Buddhists.



Buddha.

helped him greatly in its propagation In or about the year 483 B C , he died at Kusinagar at the age of eighty

Death of
Buddha

Buddhist Councils and Scriptures—Buddha left to his followers no written teachings But soon after his death, his disciples met in a vast cave near Rajagriha to gather together the sayings of the great Reformer His doctrines were collected and divided into three codes called *Tripitakas* or Three Baskets viz , *Sutra* or the sayings and parables of Buddha *Vinaya* or the rules of morality for the guidance of Buddhist monks, and *Abhidharma* or philosophical discourses The Buddhist scriptures were afterwards revised in 383 B C by another council at Vaisali Two other revisions were subsequently made one in the seventeenth year of the reign of Asoka, and another under the auspices of Kanishka as already stated These revisions naturally led to the formation of different Buddhist schools the most important of which is the *Mahayana* school, which declares that all human beings without any distinction have an equal right to the saving knowledge The revision of Kanishka formed the basis of this school, but its real founder was the great Buddhist reformer Nagarjuna

First
Council.

Tripitakas

Second
Council.

Third and
Fourth
Councils.

Mahayana
school

Buddhist doctrines—The chief excellence of Buddhism lies in its lofty moral precepts It is essentially a religion of self culture The practice of love, charity and forgiveness, and of absolute purity in life, thought and speech, are enjoined in the strongest terms as the only means of attaining true knowledge which alone can lead to *Nirvana*—the Buddhist salva-

Lofty
morality of
Buddhism

Nirvana.

Buddhism
and Bra-
hmanism

tion One of the excellent features of this religion is its regard for animal life even in its humblest forms Its philosophical doctrines are mainly derived from those of the orthodox schools The law of *Karma*, the transmigration of the soul and the doctrine that salvation can be obtained by knowledge and culture have the same prominence in both the Brahmanic and the Buddhist scriptures The Buddhist holy order of *Bhikkhus* and *Sramanas* also grew out of the life of the Hindu *Sannyasis* But on the other hand, Buddha raised his voice against Vedic sacrifices and the caste distinction of the orthodox Hindus and his condemnation of their penances and mortifications was so severe that he was derided as a sensualist by the Brahmans But Buddha condemned a life of pleasure seeking as well His advice to his disciples was to follow a "middle path" between the austere life of a Hindu ascetic on the one hand and the gay life of a pleasure seeker on the other

Middle Path

Success of Buddhism—Another point of difference between Brahmanism and Buddhism lies in the missionary spirit of the latter The Buddhists did not confine their teaching to a select class or sect but addressed themselves to the people at large and invited them to participate in the truth they had discovered Missionaries were sent to the remotest corners of the world known to them and, in the course of a few centuries Buddhism was accepted by more than half of the human race From the time that this religion was made the state religion by Asoka, it flourished in India in full vigour for many centuries and made numerous converts, and it

Missionary
spirit of
Buddhism

was not till the close of the period under review that the religion showed the first signs of decline within this country

Jainism developed by Mahavira, another great Sannyasi teacher—Another non-Brahmanical system is Jainism * It was probably founded by Parsvanath, and subsequently reformed and developed by Mahavira who was a contemporary of Buddha and, also like him, a Kshattriya prince Jainism, equally with the Buddhist religion, rejects the authority of the Vedas, though it makes a nearer approach to Bramanism than Buddhism does The Jainas have caste distinctions and worship many of the Hindu gods Their chief objects of veneration are, however, certain saints called *Tirthankaras* or *Jinas*, the latest of whom are Parsvanath and Mahavira The Jainas carry their respect for animal life much farther than even the Buddhists The *pinjrapoles* set up in many places all over India, affording shelter to old and worn out animals, are familiar instances of the care of the Jainas for the lower animals The Jainas are a rich mercantile class, and their principal seats are in the Bombay Presidency

Parsvanath.

Jaina doctrines.

Tirthankaras

Pinjrapoles.

Introduction of Christianity into India—There is evidence that a new faith had also reached the shore of India towards the close of the second century A D This was Christianity It is said to have been received by the Buddhist princes of Southern India in their usual tolerant spirit and to have made some converts A small Christian community was thus formed on the Malabar Coast, but it was not till the arrival of the Portuguese and other Christian nations

Oldest Christian community.

of Europe many centuries after, that the new religion began to show its present activity in this country

Development of Astronomy and Algebra —
 Next to philosophy, the science that received the greatest development in this age was Astronomy. The celebrated astronomer Garga was followed by other writers of *Siddhantas* or astronomical works, the most important of which is the *Surya siddhanta*. It seems probable also that the frequent intercourse between the Hindus and the Greeks during the period was not without its effect, for the Hindu astronomers acknowledge to have taken hints of improvement from the *Yavanas* (Romans or Greeks). The great astronomer, Aryabhata, who was born at Kusumpur in 476 A. D., was the first to determine that the earth is round and that it rotates round its own axis. Shortly after, came Varahamihira, the famous 'gem' of the court of Vikramaditya, who flourished in the latter part of the sixth century. Considerable progress was also made in the science of Algebra, and several useful works were written which were afterwards translated by the Arabs.

Medicine — The science of medicine too made a further advance. Not only medicinal herbs but mineral substances, both simple and compound, began to be extensively used, while the erection of hospitals for men and beasts which grew numerous under Asoka and other Buddhist kings, afforded opportunities for a special development of this useful science. Many medical treatises were written, the most important of which were those by Charaka and Susruta.

Siddhantas

Yavanas

Aryabhata

Varahamihira.

Algebra

Hospitals

Charaka and
Susruta.

Revival of Literature—The latter part of this period is marked by a revival in literature, as its early part is characterised by a revival in religion and philosophy. Foremost among the poets and dramatists of the age stand the versatile Asvaghosha, the illustrious Bhasa and the immortal Kalidasa. Asvaghosha was a contemporary of the great Kamshka, and wrote the famous epic, *Buddha charita*. Bhasa is the author of the celebrated play, *Svapnavasatadatta* which deals with the story of Vatsaraja Udayana king of Kausambi. Greater than Asvaghosha and Bhasa was Kalidasa—a name honoured all over the world. His *Raghuvansa* and *Kumarasambhava* will always be read with delight as long as the Sanskrit language endures, while his *Sakuntala* is deservedly estimated to be one of the best dramas in the world. In prose, we have that charming and instructive book of fables *Panchatantra*, which was translated into ancient Persian as early as the sixth century A D., and subsequently found its way into Europe. Banabhatta, who lived at the court of Harshavardhan, not only wrote a biography of his master under the name of *Srīharshacharita*, but also produced among other works the enchanting novel *Kadamari*. The great lexicographer Amarasinha author of the popular Sanskrit dictionary, *Amarakosha* is reckoned among the "mine gems" of the court of Vikramaditya.

Asvaghosha,
Bhasa and
Kalidasa

Pancha-
tantra

Banasbhatta

Amarasinha

What the religious reformers did for the vernacular tongues—The vernacular languages were greatly improved by the efforts of the popular religious reformers. The Brahmans generally wrote their religious treatises in the learned Sanskrit

language But both the Buddhist and Juna teachers addressed the people by works in the popular tongues Pali or the vernacular used in Mid India was employed by the Buddhist reformers while the Junas used the spoken dialect of Maharashtra These vernaculars thus gradually received a literary character

The Buddhist Architecture and Fine Arts — The arts of architecture and sculpture received a special development at the hands of the Buddhists The Buddhist *stupas* or stone mounds, their *chaityas* or churches excavated in the solid rock, and their *viharas* or monasteries also excavated in rock, still remain to testify to their wonderful skill in architecture The ornamented pillars and the engraved figures in these buildings and the paintings that often cover their walls also show what great progress they made in the arts of sculpture, engraving and painting

Commerce and Colonisation — Trade, commerce and colonisation, other accompaniments of civilisation, also received their due share of attention Both the inland and the coasting trade were in a prosperous condition, and, however averse to sea voyages the modern Hindus may be, their forefathers were not afraid of crossing the "black water" The Hindus of Bengal are said to have conquered and colonised Ceylon some five hundred years before the Christian era The name Ceylon, which is a corruption of *Sinhala*, is derived from the dynasty founded by Vijaya Sinha, the leader of the Bengalee expedition An active commerce was carried on between Barygaza (Broach) and the Tamil ports, and the Roman Empire, while ships plied regularly between Tamralipta

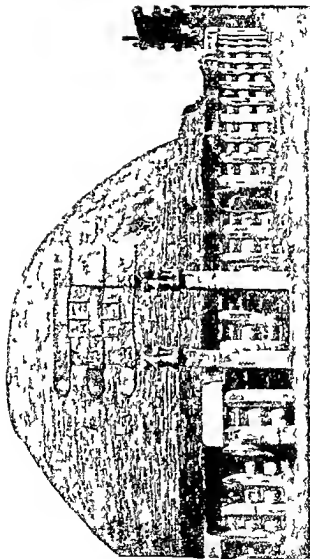
Pali

Maharatti

Stupas
Chaityas and
Viharas

Ceylon

Trade with
the Roman
empire and
the Far
East



SANCHI STUPA
(Johnston and Hoffmann)

(Tamluk) and the islands and countries of Malaysia and the Far East Java and a few islands near it were early colonised by the Hindus The celebrated Chinese pilgrim, Fa-hien, who visited India early in the fifth century A D, tells us that he sailed from Bengal to Ceylon and from Ceylon to Java in merchant vessels manned by Hindu crews

Java

Influence of Non Brahmanical creeds upon Hindu Society—The Hindus have always been very conservative in social matters It requires a long time to introduce any change into their deep rooted social institutions It is, therefore, not surprising to find that the society of the period under consideration was very much the same as among the early Hindus The rigours of the caste system, however, seem to have been mitigated to a certain extent by the influence of Buddhism, and other non-Brahmanical systems that preached the doctrine of equality, and it appears probable that many of the mixed castes found in modern Hindu society originated in this period

Mixed
castes

Education—The cause of education received an impetus at the hands of the Buddhist monks whose monasteries were always great seats of learning Some of these monasteries accommodated thousands of students, several of whom came from China, Sumatra and other distant lands The monastery at Nalanda was the most magnificent university of this period It was a grand building, containing a hundred lecture rooms for different branches of study, and accommodating ten thousand monks and students, to whom all necessaries were gratuitously supplied These monasteries, however, did not supplant the

Residential
University
at Nalanda

Tols

tols where the Brahman professors continued as of old to teach students free of cost providing them in most cases with free board and lodging

Classes of the people

What Nearchus and Megasthenes say about India—An interesting side light has been thrown on Hindu society during the early part of this period by the accounts of Nearchus the celebrated admiral of Alexander and Megasthenes the famous ambassador of Seleucus at the court of Chandragupta. Megasthenes resided in India for several years and studied the social system of the country with great care and attention. He found the people divided into seven classes viz (1) the philosophers (2) the councillors (3) the soldiers (4) the secret inspectors (5) the husbandmen (6) the traders and artisans and (7) the neatherds shepherds and hunters. The philosophers refer no doubt to the Brahman priests and sages and the Buddhist *srastanas*. The councillors point to the Brahmans and Kshatriyas that served as ministers and great officers of the realm. The soldiers were of course mainly Kshatriyas. The secret inspectors were recruited from various castes and orders of the people. The husbandmen traders and the artisans represent the Vaisyas and the mixed castes. The neatherds shepherds and hunters were either Sudras or aboriginal hill tribes.

Indian life and character

The society was marked with simplicity of manners and the people were known for their truthfulness good order and temperate habits. Slavery was unknown usury was never practised theft and law suits were extremely rare. Though finery and ornaments were in use the usual dress according to Near

thus, was simple, a cotton *dhuti* and *chadar*, white leather shoes, a turban and an umbrella generally made up a man's attire. Agriculture was in a prosperous condition, and the people knew no scarcity.

Megasthenes gives a graphic description of the court and administration of Chandragupta. Pataliputra, the capital, which was situated at the confluence of the Ganges and the Son, was defended by a massive wooden palisade and by a deep and broad moat filled from the waters of the Son. The ramparts were pierced by sixty-four gates and strengthened by five hundred and seventy turrets. The imperial palace, which was chiefly built of wood, overlaid with gold, surpassed in splendour the most magnificent palaces known to the Greek ambassador. The favourite amusements of the king were combats of animals, gladiatorial contests between men, different kinds of races and the chase. The king, as a rule, resided in the inner palace protected by female bodyguard. He gave audience to his people once a day when he received petitions and heard cases in person. The capital city was administered by a municipal body consisting of thirty members divided into six *panchayats* (or committees of five members). The first committee had the superintendence of industrial arts, the second of foreign residents and visitors, the third of the vital statistics, the fourth of trade and commerce, the fifth of manufactures and the sixth of the collection of a tithe on sales of goods. The whole municipal body was collectively responsible for the good administration of the city, and had to keep in order

Nearchus.

Chandra-
gupta's
adminis-
tration.

Capital

Palace

The king

Municipality

Provincial government.	markets, temples and other public works. The distant provinces were governed by viceroys, who were generally relatives of the king. The latter kept watch over them by means of "news-writers" who acted as spies and reported all that occurred
Justice	in the country privately to the kings. Justice was administered with great strictness and criminals were punished with much severity. The agricultural land
Agricultural land.	was looked upon as the property of the crown and the cultivators had to pay a tax to the government amounting on the average to a fourth of the gross produce of their fields. Great care was bestowed and large sums of money were spent
Irrigation.	on irrigation work, there was a regular system of canals and a special department was set up for superintending the irrigation of the country. The military administration was excellent; the king maintained a huge army consisting of thirty thousand
Army.	horse, six lakhs of foot soldiers, besides a large number of elephants and chariots. The Military Department
Military Department.	was controlled, like the Municipal Department, by a committee of thirty members divided into six boards of five members each. The first of these boards looked after the Admiralty, the second, the Commissariat, the third, the Infantry, the fourth, the Cavalry, the fifth, the War Chariots; and the sixth, the Elephants.

What the Chinese Pilgrims say about the Country —
 A picture of the society of the latter part of this period has been afforded by the accounts of some of the Chinese travellers who came to India to visit the Buddhist holy places and to collect information about

<p>Buddhism The first pilgrim of note was Fa hien who came to this country as stated before during the reign of Chandra Gupta II in the beginning of the fifth century A D He visited Gandhara Magadha Tamruk and other places in Northern India He was struck by the grandeur of Asoka's palace which was still standing The towns of Magadha were in a very prosperous condition Charitable institutions rest houses for the benefit of travellers and free hospitals were to be found in all important centres The people were happy and contented Administration of criminal laws was very mild Capital punishment was unknown and judicial torture was never practised Officials were handsomely paid and were just and honest in their dealings with the people The men were thoroughly sober in habit and were averse to slaughter of animals They enjoyed considerable liberty and had not to pay heavy taxes Though the revival of Brahmanism had begun under the fostering care of the Guptas the Buddhists were not persecuted and Fa hien was led to believe that Buddhism was still in a flourishing condition But the Chinese traveller noted with regret the desolate condition of Gaya Kapilavastu Kusinagar and other places famous in the history of Buddhism</p>	<p>Fa hien</p>
	<p>General prosperity.</p>
	<p>Criminal laws</p>
	<p>Honest officials.</p>
	<p>The people</p>
	<p>Religion</p>

Still more comprehensive and important is the account given by the famous traveller Hiuen Tsang who came to India about 630 A D and passed nearly fifteen years in this country visiting various places in both Northern and Southern India His description of the quinquennial festival held at Allahabad by Harshavardhan has already been referred to He

Hiuen
Tsang

Nalanda

Condition
of different
kingdomsAdministra-
tion of the
country

Finance

Character
of the
people

Toleration

also testifies to the grandeur of the University of Nalanda where he spent five years in studying the Buddhist and the Brahminical scriptures. Among other things that struck him were the valour and bravery of the Chulukyas of Southern India and the cultivation of letters in Malwa and Magadha. Pataliputra was now in ruins. Gujarat was famous for its great commerce and wealth. Kashmir was very powerful. Sind supported a large number of Buddhist monks. Bengal and Assam were parcelled out into small states ruled over by Hindu kings. Kalinga was almost depopulated and covered with jungle. The administration of the country was conducted on very liberal principles. The revenue was mainly derived from the crown lands and amounted on the average to one sixth of the produce. Taxes were light and there was no forced labour. The great officers of the state received certain assignments of land for their support. The produce of the royal land was divided into four portions: the first went to pay the expenses of the kingdom; the second supplied the subsidies for the officers of the state; the third was set apart for rewarding learned men; and the fourth was spent on charity to religious bodies. Public events of the country were regularly recorded by officials specially appointed for the purpose. Education was widely diffused and learning was patronised by the government. Like Megasthenes the Chinese traveller speaks highly of the national character of the Indians. They were truthful, honest, upright and pious. In religious matters the people were highly tolerant. Huen Tsang found Brahminism and Buddhism flourishing side by side almost everywhere he went and yet he never met with any case of bitter religious persecution.

CHAPTER V

POLITICAL HISTORY OF INDIA FROM THE DEATH OF HARSHAVARDHAN TO THE MUHAM- MADAN CONQUEST

✓ The Muhammadans begin to invade the Country — The empire of Harshavardhan did not survive his death. Some of the powerful feudatories then tried to establish their supremacy and a severe and long contest for power followed. But while this struggle was going on new invaders appeared in the north western part of the country. These were the Muhammadans a religious sect founded in Arabia in the beginning of the seventh century.

*
Fall of
Harsha's
empire

✓ Rise and spread of Muhammadanism — Muhammad the founder of the sect was born in a poor but noble family in 570 A. D. at Mecca. Given to religious contemplation from his early youth he was shocked by the gross idolatry and superstition that prevailed among his countrymen at the time and he formed a resolution to bring about reformation at any cost. But his poverty prevented him from carrying out his scheme till a rich marriage placed him above petty wants of the body and about the age of forty he began to preach his monotheistic doctrine. There is no god but God. He however met with stern persecution and was compelled to flee to Medina in 622.

His doctrine

- 10]ri A D The Muhammadan era *Hijri* dates from this year. The people at Medina favourably received the Prophet, who was soon able to gather a large number of followers around him. With their help, he succeeded in converting the whole of Arabia to his religion within a short time. He died in 632 A. D. But the spirit with which he had inspired his followers survived. The leadership of the Muhammadans fell, after him, on the Khalifas or Commanders of the Faithful who ruled first at Medina, then at Damascus and Bagdad. They vigorously propagated the new faith, and within a century after the death of the Prophet, the banner of Islam was planted over a vast tract of country, including Persia, Syria, part of Asia Minor, Northern Africa and Spain.
- Chalifas
- spread of
Islam
- 7] Muhammadan
invasion
- 10] Hajjaj.
- Dahir
- ✓ The Muhammadans invade and conquer Sind — From the beginning, the Muhammadans had an eye upon the rich plains of India, but only a few desultory inroads ensued, until the year 711, when an occasion arose for sending a more regular expedition. In this year the king of Ceylon sent a few vessels bearing some presents and pilgrims to Hajjaj, the Musalman governor of Persia. These were seized by some pirates off the coast of Sind. Hajjaj claimed compensation from Dahir, king of Sind, who excused himself on the ground that he had no control over the pirates. The Persian governor, however, made it a pretext for invading India and after obtaining the necessary permission from the Khalifa of Damascus he sent an expedition against Dahir. But the Arab army was defeated, and its general was slain. A second expedition also met with the same fate. Hajjaj then sent his

son in law, Muhammad Ibn Kasim, at the head of a formidable army. The two recent victories had thrown Dahir off his guard, and the invader was thus able to march on conquering the places that lay in his way, till he reached Alor, the capital of Sind. Here a desperate battle was fought, but the Hindus were defeated, and Dahir fell fighting bravely in the midst of the enemy. Dahir's widow, however, rallied the scattered soldiers and defended the town gallantly till provisions failed. When no hope was left, the heroic queen with other ladies of the city perished in the flames, while the men rushed out, fought bravely and were slain to a man. Multan was next conquered, and, within three years, the whole of Dahir's dominions submitted to the arms of Muhammad. Thus the Hindus lost one of their fair provinces, and the Muhammadans continued to retain their hold upon it for many centuries.

Muhammad
Ibn Kasim.

Battle of
Alor

Conquest of
Sind and
Multan

¶ Northern India after Harsha — The middle of the eighth century revealed a new state of things in Northern India. The empire founded by Harsha had disappeared and the country had become split up into numerous kingdoms, each with its own religion and government. The most important of these kingdoms were Kashmir, Medantaka (Rajaputana), Saurashtra (Kathuwar), Avanti (Malwa), Kanauj and Gaur (Bengal).

Kingdoms in
the eighth
century

¶ The Karkota and Pala Kings and the Scramble for Kanauj — Amongst these kingdoms Kashmir and Gaur (Bengal) were at first the most powerful. An ambitious dynasty, the Karkota, was on the throne of Kashmir. Bengal, after a period of anarchy (matsya

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First Muhammadan invasion	
Hajjaj,	
Dahur	

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Palas of
Bengal

nyaya) had ^{chosen}~~chosen~~ as its ruler a chief named Gopala who founded the famous Pala dynasty which endured for more than three hundred years. The Karkota kings Lalitaditya and Vinayaditya as well as the Pala king Dharmapala (son of Gopala) carried their victorious arms as far as Kanauj which was the cynosure of the uprising dynasties of this period. But none of them could achieve any permanent success. ✓

Origin of the
Rajputs

✓ Rise of the Rajputs — Meanwhile tribes of a new martial race had established supremacy in the kingdoms of Western Hindusthan. These were the Rajputs. The Rajputs trace their descent from the ancient Ashatthiyas but some are of opinion that there is a considerable admixture of Scythian blood in them. When the ruling dynasties of Western Hindusthan were gradually enfeebled and exhausted by their mutual struggle the Rajputs stepped into their places and made themselves master of the greater portion of the country.

✓ The Pratihara Empire — The most powerful of the Rajput states was the Pratihara kingdom of Avanti founded by Nagabhata I who flourished about 725 A D and established the greatness of his family by successful warfare against the Arabs of Sind. His fourth successor Nagabhata II conquered Kanauj and laid the foundations of an empire which rivalled that of Harsha in extent. ✓

✓ Bhoja the greatest Pratihara Emperor — Under Bhoja (grandson of Nagabhata II) who began to rule about 843 A D the Pratihara Empire rose to the height of its power. He overpowered the kings down to the Vindhya and his dominions extended from

Pehoa in the Punjab to the borders of Bengal He died in or about 882 $\frac{1}{2}$ D

W Mahendrapala and Mahipala —Bhoja was succeeded by his own Mahendrapala who preserved unimpaired the extensive heritage received from his father, and ruled over the whole of Northern India from Kathiawar to South Behar, and from Pehoa to the Vindhya The court of this emperor and that of his successor, Mahipala, was adorned by the poet Rajasekhara

W Southern India under the Rashtrakuta Empire —A great revolution had also taken place in Southern India Though the Chalukya power had been restored by Vikramaditya son of Pulakesi II after its overthrow by the Pallavas, the latter renewed their attacks and the struggle between the two powers lasted for about a century By the middle of the eighth century the Chalukyas were thoroughly exhausted and at last succumbed to the growing power of the Rashtrakutas under their leader Dantidurga These Rashtrakutas were now holding sway as the greatest power in Southern India with Manyakheta (Malkhed) as their capital They were in constant strife with their northern neighbours the Pratiharas of Kanauj and the Palas of Bengal W

Rashtra-
kutas of
Manyakheta

W North India split up —In the tenth century the Pratihara power steadily declined and Hindusthan was parcelled out into numerous small states the most important of which were the Chavada kingdom of Anhilvar (Gujarat) the Paramar kingdom of Malwa, the Chandel kingdom of Jejakabhukti (Bundelkhand), the Kalachuri kingdom of Dahala (Central Provinces),

the Chauhan kingdom of Ajmere, the Hindu Shahiya kingdom of the Punjab, and the Utpala kingdom of Kashmir Kanauj continued to acknowledge the feeble sway of the later Pratiharas while the Pala sovereignty in Bengal was temporarily destroyed by the Kambojas The Pala empire was however, restored by Mahipala under whom Bengal became once more the leading power of Eastern India

cause of the
all of the
Hindus

✓ The breaking up of Hindusthan makes the country weak — The independent kingdoms of Northern India were engaged in incessant hostilities, and thus rendered the country weak by making national union impossible India thus divided against itself fell an easy prey to foreign invasions In fact, the political history of Hindusthan from the tenth to the twelfth century is only a record of feuds within and invasions from without, which led to the final conquest of the country by the Muhammadans ✓

Sabuktigin

✓ The establishment of the Kingdom of Ghazni a source of future disasters to India — In an unlucky moment for the Hindus, a powerful Muhammadan kingdom was established at Ghazni in 962 by Alptigin, formerly a governor of Hirat under the Samani kings of Transoxiana Sabuktigin, a slave of Alptigin became king of Ghazni in 977 A D He strengthened himself by the conquest of Kandahar, and then marched towards India and captured some frontier forts

Defeat of
Jaypal

✓ Sabuktigin annexes a portion of the Punjab — Jaypal, king of Bathundah in the Punjab, became alarmed by the repeated incursions of the Muhammadans and invaded Ghazni at the head of a large

army But a furious snow storm compelled him to retreat and he had to buy peace by offering to pay a large sum of money to Subuktigin When he came back to his kingdom however he refused to pay the promised amount Upon this Sabuktigin marched into the Punjab defeated Jaypal and took possession of the country as far as the Indus

Sultan Mahmud and his Indian Expeditions —
(On the death of Sabuktigin in 997 the crown was seized by his younger son Ismail But in 999 Mahmud the eldest son deposed Ismail and secured the throne for himself) Mahmud was a brave and ambitious monarch and assumed the title of Sultan as a token of his power After having consolidated his position at home he turned his eyes towards the rich plains of India which presented an extensive field for the gratification of his ambition and avarice Accordingly he led several expeditions into Hindustan and the vast booty which he carried away from the country served to turn his capital into one of the wealthiest and most beautiful cities of the age

Mahmud's
ambition

His expeditions against the Punjab and in the annexation of the kingdom—Most of Mahmud's expeditions were directed against the Punjab Jaypal his father's old antagonist was again defeated after a brave resistance in 1001 A D Considering himself unworthy to reign the Hindu chief abdicated in favour of his son Anandapal or Anangapal and burnt himself on a funeral pyre Anandapal remained friendly to Ghazni for some time but in 1006 he formed an alliance with the Muhammadan ruler of

Abdication
of Jaypal

Ananda Pal.

Multan

Multan, who had renounced his allegiance to Mahmud Mahmud, however, reduced Multan in a short time, and in 1009 came back with a large army to punish the Punjab chief Anandapal had been expecting the attack and had strengthened himself by confederacy with the neighbouring Hindu chiefs A battle was fought on the plains of Peshawar, where after a hard contest the Hindu army was defeated, and Mahmud returned triumphant to Ghazni, after plundering the fort of Kangra where a large treasure had been deposited In 1021, Mahmud annexed Lahore permanently to Ghazni after defeating and slaying Trilochanapal, son and successor of Anandapal

Battle of Peshwar.

Kangra.

Annexation of Lahore

Kashmir.

His other expeditions are mostly plundering raids —Mahmud also tried to penetrate into Kashmir, but was unsuccessful His expeditions farther into Hindusthan were mostly undertaken for the purpose of plunder In 1014, he plundered the temple of Thaneswar, and in 1018, he led a grand expedition against the sacred city of Muttra Muttra was full of rich temples and costly edifices, and it yielded an immense booty to the invader, who also captured Kanauj and laid waste a large tract of country

Thaneswar.

Kanauj

His great expedition against the temple of Somnath —The last and the greatest expedition of Mahmud was directed against the temple of Somnath in Gujarat This was one of the most important places of pilgrimage and was fabulously rich Mahmud started from Ghazni in October, 1025, and after a long march reached Anhilvar, the capital of Gujarat On his approach the king fled, and Mahmud arrived at Somnath unopposed in January, 1026 Here,

Gujarat

however, the invader met with obstinate resistance from the priests but they were routed, and Mahmud sacked the temple and shattered the image to pieces. It is said that the treasure he found in the temple surpassed all his previous booty in value. He then marched back through Sind, in the hot deserts of which his army had to suffer terribly for want of water. Sultan Mahmud died in 1030 A. D.

Results of Mahmud's Indian Expeditions — Mahmud's Indian expeditions were rather plundering raids than serious efforts at conquest and affected merely the kingdoms in the north west of India. But his permanent occupation of the Punjab was attended with important political results. His father had stopped at Peshawar but Mahmud's annexation of the Punjab brought the Muhammadan frontier to the gates of Delhi, and thus prepared the way for the final struggle which dealt the death blow to Hindu independence.

Character of
Mahmud's
expeditions

Effect of the
conquest of
the Punjab

Revolutions and intestine quarrels weaken the Hindus still further — For a century and a half the Muhammadans made no great forward movement and the princes of India might have combined to hamper their progress. But the eyes of the Hindus were not yet opened. The several independent kingdoms carried on their intestine quarrels with unabated fury, while court intrigues and revolutions sapped their strength to the very foundation.

A new Chalukya Empire in the Deccan — The sovereignty of the Deccan had reverted from the hands of the Rashtrakutas to those of the Chalukyas in 973 A. D., when Tailapa the Chalukya chief,

Chalukyas
of Kalyan.

defeated the last Rashtrakuta monarch and set up a new Chalukya empire in Southern India. In the middle of the eleventh century, Kalyan became the capital of this new empire, which continued to retain supremacy for a hundred years more. The greatest of the later Chalukyas was Vikramaditya VI, the hero of Bilhana's *Vikramankacharita*.

The Yadavas overthrow the Chalukyas — About the middle of the twelfth century the Chalukya power began to decline, and some of the feudatory chiefs became powerful and defiant. For sometime the sovereignty was usurped by Bijjala and his family of the Kalachurya race, a branch of the Haihayas or Kalachuris of the Narbada Valley. But the Chalukyas were restored to power about 1184 A. D. by the valour and devotion of one of their feudatories, named Brahma, who, however, was shortly after defeated by the Yadavas, and the Chalukya power in the western Deccan was extinguished for ever.

Southern India split up — The Yadavas claimed descent from the family of the great Krishna of the Mahabharata. They seem to have settled in the Deccan when the Rashtrakutas were at the height of their power. Their chiefs were at first feudatories of the Rashtrakutas, after whose fall they transferred their allegiance to the Chalukyas of Kalyan. One family of the Yadavas ruled in the country about the modern Khandesh, and another, the Hoysalas, had their capital at Dorasamudra, modern Halebid, in Mysore. Both these families took advantage of the weakness of the newly restored Chalukya kingdom, and attacked it about the same time, the first from the north

Kalachuris

Fall of the
Chalukyas.

Yadava
kingdoms
of Devagiri
and Dora
samudra.

and the second from the south. The Yadavas of the north were led by Bhallama, who had greatly extended the power of his family and made Devagiri (Daulatabad) his capital. The Hoysalas however, were more successful at first, for their chief, Vira Ballala, not only crushed the Chalukya sovereignty by defeating Brahma, but also got the better of his rival Bhallama in a decisive battle. But the Yadavas of Devagiri subsequently became more powerful.

Vira Ballala.

Another family the Kakatiyas also began to be prominent in the last days of the Chalukyas. Their seat was in Telangana and their capital at Warangal. They were also at first feudatories to the Chalukyas, but about the middle of the twelfth century, their chief Prolaraja became practically independent and even captured his Chalukya overlord and kept him in prison for some time.

Kakatiya
kingdom of
Warangal

Prolaraja.

The ancient kingdoms of Chera, Chola, Pandya and Pallava had been by this time reduced to the lowest stage of their political existence, though early in the eleventh century the Chola kingdom seemed to revive for a time under Rajaraja the Great, and his famous son Rajendra Chola I who is said to have carried his victorious arms even to Orissa and Bengal. Towards the close of the eleventh century, the Chola kingdom was seized by Rajendra Chola II, who belonged to a minor branch of the Chalukyas of Badami, and was a son of a daughter of Rajendra Chola I.

Four old
kingdoms of
Southern
India

Rajendra
Chola I

Rajendra
Chola II

A daughter of Rajendra Chola II was married to Rajaraja, king of Kalinga, who belonged to the

Chola
Gangadev
Ganga
kingdom of
Orissa

Ganga family The issue of this marriage was Anantavarman Chola Gangadeva who conquered Orissa about the beginning of the twelfth century and thus became the founder of the Ganga dynasty of that kingdom

Internecine
struggles

Bhoja
Paramara

Senas of
Bengal

Vijaya Sena
Sura
dynasty

India in turmoil on the eve of the Muhammadan Conquest—Thus we find that towards the close of the twelfth century, when the Muhammadan conquest of Hindusthan took place, Southern India had been split up and the sovereignty divided among a number of kingdoms, the most prominent of which were the Yadava kingdoms of Devagiri and Dorasamudra, the Kakatiya kingdom of Warangal and the Ganga kingdom of Orissa. The condition of Northern India was even worse. In Kashmir, the Utpala dynasty had given away to another family, which again had been superseded by the Lohara dynasty. In Gujarat, the Chavadas had been overthrown in 941 by the Chalukyas or Solankis under Mularaj I, and these were engaged about this time in fighting with their neighbours, the Paramaras of Malwa. The great Paramara king, Bhoja, so well known in the Indian legends, who was ruling in Malwa at the time of Mahmud's expeditions, is said to have won a great victory over the Chalukyas of Gujarat. In Bengal, a new family, that of the Senas, had established its supremacy shortly after the death of Ramapala, the last great king of the Pala dynasty. The founder of the Sena line was a Karnata chief named Samanta Sena whose grandson, Vijaya Sena, married a princess belonging to the powerful Sura dynasty which is traditionally associated with the revival of Brahmanism in Bengal, and wrested

Gaur apparently from the hands of the Pala kings. Ballal Sena, a son of Vijaya Sena by the Sura princess, was the most famous of the Sena kings. He is the reputed founder of *kulinism* (a system of nobility) among the higher castes of Bengal, and flourished in the twelfth century, A. D. When the Senas were rising in Bengal, the Gaharwars or Rathors were making themselves masters of Kanauj. Jaychandra, the last Rathor king of Kanauj, ascended the throne about 1170 A.D. His great rival was the celebrated Chauhan prince, Prithviraj, king of Ajmere and Delhi. ✓

Ballal Sena

Jaychandra

Prithviraj.

The quarrels between Prithviraj and Jaychandra. —A romantic description of the jealousies and quarrels of the two monarchs has been furnished to us in the famous Hindi epic, *Prithiraj Raisa*, commonly attributed to the poet Chand. It tells us that Jaychandra performed a ceremony in imitation of the ancient *Rajasuya*, in which he called upon the neighbouring princes to come and perform the various offices connected with it. Prithviraj was also invited to attend, but the proud Chauhan disdained to listen to the arrogant summons. Thereupon Jaychandra set up a mock statue to represent Prithviraj as a door-keeper. After the performance of the ceremony, a *svayamvara* (self-choice of husband) took place, in which Samyukta, the daughter of the Rathor king was to choose a husband from among the princes assembled. But Samyukta cared for none of them. She passed through the gallant host of princes, stepped to the gate and placed the marriage garland round the neck of the statue of Prithviraj, by the fame of whose chivalry she had been attracted. Prithviraj, who had

Prithiraj
Raisa,Samyukta's
svayamvar

been close at hand in disguise it once appeared on the scene and carried off his bride; The story may be a fiction of the poet but it is certain that the gulf between the two rival kings was gradually widened till both of them succumbed to a common enemy against whom their blind jealousies prevented them from making a united stand

Shahabuddin Muhammad Ghorî takes the Punjab—This enemy was Muizzuddin better known in Indian history as Shahabuddin Muhammad Ghorî. He was the brother and general of Ghiasuddin the chief of Ghor a small territory situated between Ghazni and Persia. There had been long and bloody feuds between the houses of Ghazni and Ghor resulting in the overthrow of the former. The Ghaznavite kings had been compelled to seek shelter in their Indian possession where they continued to reign with Lahore as their capital till 1186 when Muhammad Ghorî took possession of the Punjab and put an end to their rule.

He fights with Prithviraj—After his occupation of the Punjab Muhammad Ghorî found himself at the gates of the kingdom of Prithviraj whose quarrels with Jaychandra encouraged him to push on farther. His first attempt was however a miserable failure. He was totally defeated at Tarain near Thaneswar in 1191 by the brave Chauhan and narrowly escaped with his life. But nothing daunted by this defeat he made preparations on a greater scale to measure his strength again with the Hindu prince. The two armies met a second time at Tarain in the vicinity of Thaneswar in 1192. The battle raged the whole day and the Raj-

ise of
hor

first battle
Tarain

second
battle of
Tarain

puts fought with great valour. Towards sunset when the brave Hindus seemed to be on the point of gaining the day, Muhammad charged them at the head of a large body of fresh horse, which at once turned the tide of the battle. The flower of the Hindu army soon lay dead on the field, and Prithviraj himself was captured and murdered in cold blood. The foundation stone of a Muhammadan Empire in India was thus laid.

Fall of the
Hindus.

Hindu power of resistance — But this empire was not built in a day. A single victory could not achieve the conquest of India. The country was divided as stated before into numerous independent kingdoms, and each had to be conquered and subdued separately before Muhammadan power could be firmly set up. This circumstance of course made the conquest a long and tedious process, but it at the same time rendered final subjugation a foregone conclusion, as divided India could not unite to offer a combined resistance.

Muhammadan Conquest of Northern India — Shortly after his victory, Muhammad took Ajmere. His general Kutbuddin occupied Delhi (1193) and captured Kalinjar (1203). Muhammad made Delhi the capital of the Muhammadan dominions in India. In 1194 he defeated and killed Jaychandra, the king of Kanauj, in the vicinity of Itawa, and annexed his kingdom. Thus fell the power of the brave Rathors, whose union with their heroic brethren the Chauhans might have averted their fall and changed the whole course of Indian history. Most of the Rathors, however, did not submit to the Muhammadan rule. They quitted their homes in large num-

Ajmere

Delhi &
Kalinjar

Kanauj

bers and subsequently settled in the desert regions of Western India, where they founded the kingdom of Marwar which is still under their rule. The Musalman arms, however, sustained a repulse in their attacks upon Gujarat, though, in 1197, Kutbuddin succeeded in getting temporary possession of its capital. Magadha or South Behar was conquered by a lieutenant of Kutbuddin named Muhammad Khilji son of Bukhtyar. Muhammad Khilji next pushed on to Bengal where Lakshmana Sena son of the famous Ballal Sena, was then ruling. Lakshmana fled with his family to Bikrampur at the approach of the enemy who was thus able to conquer Western Bengal without much opposition in or about 1199. The Sena family, however, continued to rule in the neighbourhood of Dacca for several generations. Thus within six years of the second battle of Taim the Muhammadans became masters of the greater portion of the plains of Northern India. But they had to wait for about a century more before they could make any impression on the Southern kingdoms.

On the death of Muhammad Ghori, Kutbuddin declares himself Sovereign of Hindusthan—After the death of his brother in 1203 Muhammad became ruler of the vast dominions extending from the Bay of Bengal to the borders of Persia. But he did not live long to enjoy this sovereignty. His time was largely spent in campaigns both in Afghanistan and in India. The half subdued hill tribes of the north-western frontier of India often created disturbance, and one of them the Gakkars, devastated the Punjab. Muhammad put down the Gakkars, but a party of

Gujarat

Behar

Bengal

Empire of
Ghor.

them suddenly entered the Afghan camp on the Indus and stabbed him when he was lying asleep in his tent (1206). On his death, his empire fell to pieces. One of his generals seized on Ghazni, while his Indian viceroy, Kutbuddin, declared himself independent sovereign of Hindústan.

Murder of
Muhammad
Ghor.

Ghorian
empire
partitioned

CHAPTER VI.

STATE OF THE COUNTRY FROM THE DEATH OF HARSHAVARDHAN TO THE MUHAMMADAN CONQUEST

Civilisation of the Hindus on the eve of the Muhammadan rule

Effects of
the split-up
of the
country

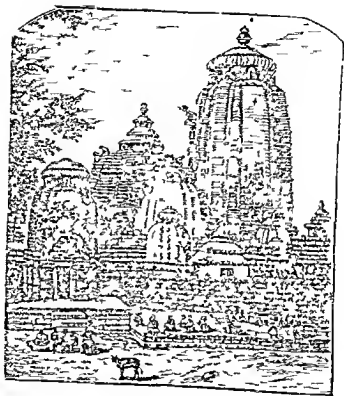
Development of Literature and Science—The break up of the country into comparatively small states was favourable to the development of science and literature, though it weakened the country politically. The Muhammadan invasion no doubt disturbed this progress to a certain extent in the kingdoms affected by them, but on the whole, literature and arts continued to flourish, especially in the kingdoms which were situated at some distance from the scene of these disturbances. Even when the Muhammadans were knocking at the gates of Bengal, the country was resounding with the sweet songs of the melodious bard Jaydeva. The great poets, Bhavabhuti and Rajasekhara, adorned the imperial court of Kanauj. As a dramatist Bhavabhuti is hardly inferior to Kalidasa, and his *Mahavira-charita* and *Uttararama-charita* will always be admired for their vigorous conception and perfect delineation of tender and noble sentiments. Kalhana, one of the few historians that the ancient Hindus could boast of, completed his famous history of Kashmir, called *Rajatarangini*, in 1149. Two other historical poems,

Jaydeva

Rajasekhara

Bhavabhuti

Kalhana.



BHUBANESWAR TEMPLE.

namely the *Vikramankacharita* of Bilhana and the *Ramacharita* of Sandhyakara were composed about this time. The Sanskrit prose literature was enriched by the composition of the *Dasakumara Charita* by Dandin. The celebrated astronomer, Bhaskaracharya was born in the early part of the twelfth century. He was a native of Southern India. In his work called *Siddhanta siromani*, he proved that the earth is round and that it has the power of attracting things to it. The book also contains solutions of important algebraical problems which were not known in Europe till a recent period.

Bilhana
Sandhyakara
Nandi
Dandin
Bhaskar
acharyya.

Revival of Hindu Architecture—With the decline of Buddhism its architecture and sculpture also declined. But the revival of Hinduism brought in a revival of Hindu architecture and sculpture which more than made up for the loss. Lofty and magnificent temples rose all over the country. The famous cave temples of Ellora which were carved out about the eighth century, still testify to the artistic and architectural skill of the Hindus. The twelfth century saw the construction of the holy temple of Jagannath in Puri. It was erected by Chola Ganga-deva, the founder of the Ganga dynasty, probably to commemorate his conquest of Orissa.

Ellora.
Jagannath

Rise of Modern Hinduism—The most noteworthy fact of this period is the fall of Buddhism and the revival of Brahmanism under a new form. Buddhism in fact had never been able to crush Brahmanism. Both religions had been flourishing side by side though Buddhism had grown more important on account of the support it had received

from a long succession of Buddhist kings in Northern India and from the self sacrificing spirit of its earlier preachers. But with the rise of powerful kings who professed the Brahmanical faith Buddhism was gradually deprived of state support, while no great teachers appeared to keep up the moral force which alone could have saved it at this crisis. On the other hand, vigorous efforts were made by the Brahmans to revive the old faith under a popular form. As the philosophical religion of the *Darsanas* was too high and elevated for the mass, they felt the necessity of introducing a personal God into the revived faith. Thus originated the worship of the *Trimurti* or Hindu Triad, Brahma, Vishnu and Mahesvar, who represent respectively the three aspects of God, as Creator, Preserver, and Destroyer or Regenerator. The scriptures of this faith are the *Puranas*. These are eighteen in number, each being sacred to one or other of the three personages of the Triad. To popularise the religion still further, legends about numerous gods and goddesses, magnificent temples and a large number of images were introduced probably in imitation of the Buddhists, whose beautiful shrines, numerous relics and images, and stories of their saints had always attracted the popular mind. Pilgrimage to holy places, solemn processions, pompous *pujas* and *melas* and other imposing ceremonies were added to make the new faith as grand and attractive as possible.

The great Hindu Reformers of the age — Mighty champions also sprang up to fight for the cause of the Brahmans. Kumarila Bhatta, a native of Behar, was one of the first to enter the lists. He is

Decline of
Buddhism.

Hindu Triad

Puranas.

Religion
popularised

Kumarila
Bhatta

said to have journeyed into Southern India, preaching the Vedic doctrine of a personal God and combating Buddhism wherever he went. His attempts to turn the tide in favour of Brahmanism seem to have been attended with much success.

But great as his success was, that of a later preacher, named Sankaracharya, was still greater. Sankara was a Brahman of Malabar in Southern India, and was born in 788 A. D. His masterly commentaries on the *Vedanta*, and the *Gita*, and his other philosophical works are a standing record of his great genius and learning. He founded his doctrines on the *Vedanta*, but to the mass he gave a personal God and popular religion. To propagate this, he organised the order of Hindu monks or *Sannyasis*, most of whom are still his followers. Before the fiery preachings of Sankara and the religious zeal of his newly organised monks, Buddhism began to melt away till it all but disappeared from the country.

Sankar-
acharya.

Hindu
monks.

Of the three personages of the Triad, Vishnu and Mahesvar (Siva) have always received the most worship. The worshippers of the former are called *Vaishnavas*, those of the latter *Saivas*. The followers of Sankaracharya are generally *Saivas*. The *Vaishnavas* also form a very large sect. Their first great preacher was Ramanuja. He flourished in the twelfth century, and like Sankara, was a Brahman of Southern India. He admitted converts from all classes, thus recognising the principle of the spiritual equality of men, which is a characteristic of the *Vaishnava* sect, and which may probably be traced to Buddhistic influence. This principle afterwards

Saivas and
Vaishnavas

Ramanuja.

Spiritual
equality of
men.

got full development at the hands of his successors. Ramanuja had the satisfaction of seeing his faith well established before his death.

Alberuni's account of India — An interesting account of the life of the Hindus of this period has been furnished by the great Muhammadan scholar Alberuni. He came to India with Mahmud of Ghazni and spent thirteen years in this country, devoting himself all the time to the study of Sanskrit literature. Being a keen observer and a man of wide sympathies, he produced a work on India the value of which is acknowledged by every competent authority. 'The world,' says Max Müller, 'owes to him the first accurate and comprehensive account of Indian literature and religion. He gives us an insight into the laws, manners and customs of the country, which can not fail to be of interest to the historian of the period.'

Alberuni's
Tahkik i-
Hind

MUHAMMADAN PERIOD.

CHAPTER I.

THE SULTANATE OF DELHI, COMMONLY CALLED THE PATHAN EMPIRE

The accession of Kutbuddin opens a new epoch — The assumption of sovereignty by Kutbuddin at Delhi marks a new epoch in the history of India. It established the Muhammadan rule in India which was to last for over five centuries and largely to influence the political and social organisation of the country.

Beginning
of the
Muham-
madan
period

✓ The Slave Kings — Kutbuddin began his life as a slave. Several of his successors also rose to the throne from the same low position. For this reason the line of kings founded by Kutbuddin is known in history as that of the Slave Kings.

Nationality of the Slave Kings and their successors — There is however, no common racial designation applicable to all the Sultans of Delhi from Kutbuddin to Ibrahim Lodi and his Sur successors. They are commonly known as Pathans but that appellation should strictly speaking be confined only to the sovereigns of the Lodi and Sur dynasties. The earlier Sultans belonged mainly to the Turk race.

Pathans

Turks

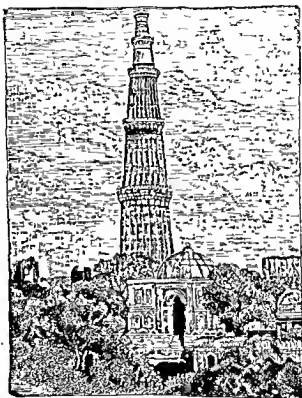
✓ Altamsh, the greatest of the Slave Kings — The third and the greatest king of Kutbuddin's line was Altamsh. He was originally a slave of Kutbuddin,

but subsequently became his son in law, and after deposing Aram, the worthless son and successor of Kutbuddin ascended the throne of Delhi in 1211. He put down some rebellions in Bengal, and in 1228 annexed Sind, after defeating its governor Nasiruddin Kubacha who had asserted his independence. He also led a successful expedition against Malwa. About 1232 he completed the construction of the famous Kutb Minar at Delhi. His reign lasted for about a quarter of a century, and he had the satisfaction of seeing his power well consolidated before his death in 1236.

The Moghuls first appear in India — It was during the reign of Altamsh that the Moghuls began to spread all over Asia under the terrible Chengiz Khan, carrying death and destruction everywhere. These Moghuls were nomad tribes inhabiting the steppes of Mongolia and were probably followers of some degraded form of Buddhism. They came as far as the Indus in pursuit of the fugitive king of Khiva who sought shelter at the court of Altamsh. But the latter refused to protect him and thus saved his empire, for the time being, from the horrors of the Moghul invasion. Later on, however, the Moghuls, in successive hordes repeatedly attacked the north western part of the country. The Slave kings found it very hard to repel these terrible invaders who, from this time, became a source of constant trouble to India, till they succeeded in setting up their sovereignty in the country.

Ruknuddin.

✓ Razia, the Lady Sovereign — Altamsh was succeeded by his son, Ruknuddin, who was soon deposed to make room for Razia, a daughter of Altamsh.



KUTUB MINAR.

the only lady that ever sat on the throne of Delhi Raziah was a woman of extraordinary ability Altamash thought so highly of her that whenever he happened to be absent from the capital, he used to leave her in charge of the government in preference to his sons On her accession she shewed all the qualities of a just and able ruler Attired in the dress of a Sultan, she appeared daily on the throne and heard and decided cases personally She revised the laws and reformed the abuses that had crept into the administration But the undue favour she showed to an Abyssinian slave offended the nobles of her court and at last brought about her fall The enraged nobles revolted against her, and putting her to death, raised her brother Bahram to the throne

✓ Nasiruddin Mahmud, the Good King — Bahram Bahram proved a worthless ruler, and after a short rule he was deposed by his minister, who made his nephew Masud Masud sultan in his place. But the new sultan was equally worthless and had soon to make room for Nasiruddin Mahmud, the youngest son of Altamash who ascended the throne in the year 1246 This king's piety, simplicity, charity and devotedness to the cause of learning have gained him a high place among the Muhammadan kings of India He entrusted his government into the hands of Ghiasuddin Balban his father in law and minister, who was originally a slave of Altamash With the help of his able minister, Nasiruddin was able to ward off the Moghuls who were about this time carrying on their depredations with great activity in the north west, advancing, at times, as far as Lahore He also Moghul invasions.

Malwa - subjugated Malwa and put down the Rajputs of the hills and forests of Mewat, who created disturbance by their repeated incursions

Mewat.

Nasiruddin's character

Many beautiful stories are told about the private life of Nasiruddin. It is said that though a king he lived the life of a *fakir*, eating on very simple food and defraying his personal expenses by copying books, as he was of opinion that the king was not the owner but only the custodian of the public funds. He had but one wife and she had to prepare meals for her husband. His temper and courtesy were exemplary. Once he showed a book he had copied to a nobleman of his court. The latter pointed out certain mistakes. The king knew that the copy was all right, yet to avoid hurting the feelings of the critic he corrected the mistakes at once and did not restore the original reading until after the nobleman had left.

Ghiasuddin Balban — Nasiruddin died without a male issue and was succeeded by Balban in 1266. The Rajputs of Mewat again rose in power and were again put down with great slaughter. Tughril Khan, governor of Bengal, revolted against Balban, but he was defeated and slain, and the emperor appointed his second son, Bughra Khan, as his viceroy of the province. The Moghuls again appeared in the Punjab but they were twice defeated by Muhammad, Balban's eldest son who, however, was at last slain in a battle with them. Balban is said to have given asylum to a large number of princes who had been expelled from their countries in Western Asia by the Moghuls. He died in 1286, broken hearted at the death of his favourite son, Muhammad.

Bengal

Moghul invasion

Royal pensioners.

The last Slave King — Balban had at first nominated his second son Bughra Khan as his successor. But the latter preferred the governorship of Bengal to the troubles of the imperial throne. So Kai Khusru, son of Muhammad, was declared his heir by the Sultan. But after Balban's death, the ministers placed Kaikubad, son of Bughra Khan, on the throne instead of Kai Khusru. Kaikubad was a vicious young man and made a very bad king. His minister Jalaluddin Khilji, had him assassinated in 1290, and secured the throne for himself.

Kaikubad

The Khilji Dynasty — The Khiljis, to which tribe the new emperor belonged were not Turks like the Slave Kings. Their rule lasted from 1290 to 1321 A.D., when Turki supremacy was restored by Ghiasuddin Tughlak.

Nationality
of the
Khiljis

The first Muhammadan Invasion of the Deccan — During the reign of Jalaluddin the Muhammadans, for the first time, extended their power into Southern India. After conquering Eastern Malwa Alauddin the nephew of the emperor, crossed the Vindhya and compelled Ramdeva, the Yadava king of Devagiri in Maharashtra, to buy peace by paying a large sum of money and ceding Ellichpur. Alauddin then returned to Hindusthan treacherously murdered his affectionate uncle, and shortly afterwards ascended the throne of Delhi in 1296.

Jalaluddin
Khilji

Alauddin Khilji, the greatest of the "Pathan" Emperors — The building up of the Pathan empire in India was all but completed in the reign of Alauddin. His first annexation was that of the kingdom of Gujarat in 1297. The year 1301 saw the fall of the

Annexation
of Gujarat.
Fall of
Rintamber.

famous fortress of Rintamhor (now in the Jaipur state) Chitor, the capital of Mewar, was besieged in 1303. But the heroic Rajputs held out bravely and the fort could only be taken after a protracted siege of more than six months. When all was lost, a small band of the Rajput garrison forced their way through the Muhammadan lines, those who remained perished to a man, the women burning themselves alive. Meanwhile Malwa was finally subjugated and annexed to the "Pathan" empire.

Siege of
Chitor

Annexation
of Malwa

Conquest of
Southern
India

Devagiri

Warangal.

Dora
samudra.

After thus completing the conquest of Northern India, Alaaddin made preparations for the conquest of Southern India. He collected a huge army for the purpose and placed his favourite minister Malik Kafur in command. Kafur was originally a Hindu slave belonging to a Cambay merchant from whom he was taken by force by Alaaddin during his conquest of Gujarat. Brave, handsome and able, he soon rose high in the king's favour till he became the chief minister. He marched into the Deccan with the imperial army in 1307, and invested the Yadava kingdom of Devagiri, the Raja of which had withheld tribute. The Raja was carried to Delhi, but he was reinstated, remaining tributary to Delhi until his death. The Kakatiyas of Warangal were next attacked. Their capital was taken and a treaty was concluded with their Raja. Kafur then turned his arms against the Hoysala Ballalas of Dorasamudra, the king of which submitted. The victorious general proceeded southwards, and soon nearly the whole of Southern India down to Adam's Bridge acknowledged the Moslem sway (1311).

The Moghuls continue their incursions.—The reigns of Jalaluddin and Alauddin were very much disturbed by incursions of the Moghuls. Jalaluddin defeated the invaders in 1292 and compelled them to retire, but he allowed Ulugh Khan, a grandson of Chengiz Khan, to settle with 3000 Moghuls in Delhi. The new settlers embraced Islam and thus became known as New Musalmans. The Moghuls renewed their invasions in Alauddin's reign, and twice advanced as far as Delhi. In 1303 they even laid siege to the capital, and did not retire until after two months. They were not able, however, as yet to make much impression on the Delhi Sultanate and most of their attacks were easily beaten back. In 1311 the New Musalmans made a plot to assassinate Alauddin, but it was discovered and the emperor ordered their wholesale massacre.

New
Musalmans.

The last days of Alauddin.—His last days were embittered by intrigues at court and rebellions in several parts of the empire. Gujarat revolted; the Rajputs of Mewar, under Hamir, recovered Chitor; while Harapaldeva, son-in-law of Ramdeva, expelled the Muhammadan garrisons from the Mahratta country. The emperor died in 1316.

Rebellions.

Chitor.

Maha-
rashtra.

Character and Administration of Alauddin.—Alauddin was a good general and an energetic ruler, but he was ignorant, capricious, cruel and tyrannical. His presumption was rather too high; at one time he thought of setting himself up for a Prophet and founding a new religion; and at another he formed a scheme of universal conquest and assumed the title of the Second Alexander. His internal administration

Alauddin's
character.

was, however, on the whole successful. The country enjoyed peace and security and there were signs of prosperity everywhere. But frequent plots against him induced him to adopt certain stringent measures. In order that the nobles might not combine against his throne, he forbade intermarriages and other connections between them. As sedition he thought, was due to drinking too much wine, accumulation of too much wealth in single hands, and meeting of too many persons in a party, he prohibited the use of wine and holding private as well as public meetings without royal license, reduced the remuneration of provincial governors and ordered confiscation of the property of all rich men both Hindu and Musalman, till all were brought down to the same social level. Spies were employed in large numbers to report breaches of these regulations to the emperor. In order to meet the expenditure of maintaining a large and efficient standing army for the defence of the empire, he devised various means of raising money. He increased the old taxes and imposed new ones, while his confiscations brought in large sums of money. To get cheap supplies he fixed rates for the prices of all articles, discouraged exportation, encouraged importation and forbade wholesale purchases.

The end of the Khilji Dynasty — After Alauddin's death, Kafur tried to usurp the throne, but Mubarak a son of Alauddin, had him murdered and secured the throne for himself. Mubarak put down the rebellion in Gujarat and in Maharashtra. But the career of the emperor was cut short by assassination.

Measures
against
sedition

Alauddin's
finance

Mubarak

in 1320 The murderer Vazir Khusrû a renegade Hindu then ascended the throne after exterminating all the descendants of Alauddin **Khusrû**

Ghiasuddin Tughlak, the founder of the Tughlak Dynasty —The traitor was allowed to reign only for a little over four months Ghazi Malik Tughlak governor of the Punjab advanced on Delhi and after defeating and putting the emperor to death succeeded to the throne as Ghiasuddin Tughlak in 1321 Ghiasuddin subjugated Telingana annexed Tirhut and suppressed a rebellion in Bengal While returning from Bengal he was met by his son Juna Khan whom he had left as his viceroy at Delhi Juna Khan received his father in a temporary pavilion which suddenly falling by accident or design killed the emperor (1325) **Telingana**
Bengal

~f Muhammad Tughlak, the Mad and Bloody Emperor —Juna Khan then ascended the throne under the title of Muhammad Tughlak He was an accomplished scholar an able soldier and a man of pure character but his extreme capriciousness wanton cruelty ferocious temper and dogged obstinacy not only made his name odious to his subjects but also brought ruin upon the Delhi Sultanate which had reached its greatest extent at his accession While he exhausted the treasury in buying off the fresh hordes of Moghuls that repeatedly invaded the Punjab he often indulged in most visionary projects which caused an enormous expenditure of life and money He once planned the conquest of Persia and collected a vast army which he was afterwards compelled to disband for want of money to pay it He **The emperor's character**
His mad projects.

next projected an invasion of China to replenish his treasury. Another immense army was accordingly collected, but it perished almost to a man in the Himalayas. The emperor then tried to fill his coffers by introducing a currency of copper tokens. The idea was excellent but the project failed as no provision was made to prevent such tokens being forged by private persons. The result was that trade was ruined, and confusion and distress prevailed everywhere. On another occasion, Muhammad ordered the citizens of Delhi on pain of death, to remove to Devagiri, which he wanted to make the capital of his empire, as it was more centrally situated than Delhi. But shortly after, they were permitted to come back. This experiment was twice repeated, and the sufferings of the people knew no bounds. Yet this was not all. The emperor imposed heavy taxes upon the poor cultivators, and he would often amuse himself with hunting down and killing thousands of them like wild beasts.

The cruelty of the Emperor brings ruin on his Empire—These barbarities had their natural effect. The Empire began to fall to pieces. The emperor's own nephew revolted in Malwa. He was caught and put to death, but other rebellions soon broke out all over the country, and several provinces threw off the yoke of Delhi. Eastern Bengal asserted its independence in 1338, and Western Bengal in 1339. In Southern India, a powerful Hindu kingdom, *viz*, Vijayanagar, was fast rising out of the ruins of the ancient Hindu kingdoms south of the Krishna, while on the north of the Krishna, the establishment of

His cruelties

Commence-
ment of the
split-up

Bengal

Vijayanagar

of a mighty independent Muhammadan power under the name of the Bahmani kingdom in 1347 drove the arms of Delhi across the Narbada. There was also a rebellion in Gujarat in 1345, but Muhammad succeeded in quelling it. The emperor, however, could hardly find any rest amidst the troubles that beset him till he died in 1351, while engaged in chasing some rebels in Sind.

Bahmani
kingdom.

CHAPTER II.

DECLINE OF THE SULTANATE OF DELHI (PATHAN EMPIRE)—INDIA AGAIN SPLIT UP

Moghal Conquest

Firuz Tughlak tries in vain to repair the mischief done by his predecessor —Muhammad Tughlak was the last great Pathan emperor The break up of the empire began as we have seen in the latter part of his reign The history of his successors is but the history of the dismemberment which went on till the vast 'Pathan empire was reduced to an insignificant kingdom consisting only of Delhi and a few miles round it Muhammad Tughlak was succeeded by Firuz Tughlak Though weak and wanting in energy he was a good king devoted to the welfare of his subjects He is well known for his enlightened regulations and for his extensive public works the most important of which is the Jumna canal He took great pleasure in reclaiming waste lands and building new cities He put a stop to torture of prisoners and abolished many vexatious imposts He fixed the demands of the State and left no opportunity to the collectors for extortions He tried his best to save the tottering empire from its fall but he could not prevent the hastening decay Bengal and the Deccan could not be recovered and the Sultanate of Delhi was now limited only to a portion

Firuz's
public works
and good
regulations

of Northern India, extending from the west of Bengal to the Punjab

The 'Pathan' Empire reduced to a small kingdom—Tirur died in 1388 and was succeeded by five weak rulers in turn, the last and weakest of whom was Mahmud Tughlak who ascended the throne in 1393. During Mahmud's reign the empire still further dwindled in extent. The governor, whom the emperor appointed to rule over Kanauj, Oudh and other eastern provinces, declared his independence, and found a new kingdom with Jaunpur as its capital in 1394. Two years later, Gujarat became independent, and its example was followed by Khandesh in 1399 and Malwa in 1401. Thus in a few years the once vast "Pathan" empire was reduced to a small kingdom extending only over Delhi and its neighbourhood.

Mahmud
Tughlak.

Revolt of the
Provinces.

Jaunpur

Gujarat

Khandesh.

Malwa

Timur's Invasion gives the death blow to the "Pathan" Empire—Meanwhile taking advantage of the weakness of the Delhi government, fresh hordes of Moghuls and Tartars, most of whom had by this time embraced Islam, had begun to pour into India. The most powerful of these invasions was led by Timur or Tamerlane, "the son of the chief of the Birlas, a tribe of the purest Mongol origin, the scattered individuals of which, from long residence in Turkestan, had become Turks in manners and language." Timur had ravaged and conquered a vast territory extending from the Volga on the west to China on the east, before he turned his arms against India. He came to this country in 1398 and marched on Delhi devastating the

Timur's
conquests

territories through which he passed. The royal army opposed him, but was routed under the walls of the city. Mahmud fled to Gujarat and Timur was proclaimed emperor of India. At first Delhi was spared the horrors of a sack, but a quarrel between some of his soldiers and the citizens of Delhi led to a general pillage and massacre which lasted for several days during which Timur celebrated a feast in honour of his victory. An immense booty was collected, and Timur returned to Samarkand taking with him innumerable men and women of all ranks as slaves. On his way he sacked Meerut and massacred its inhabitants. Violence, plunder, famine and pestilence marked every footstep of this inhuman conqueror.

Mahmud Tughlak gives up the claim to the imperial title—(After the departure of Timur, Delhi presented the sad spectacle of a ravaged and desolate town. For two months it was left almost without inhabitants. Then followed a struggle for its possession, at the end of which Mahmud Tughlak returned to his capital. But he had already given up all claims to imperial authority and ceased to coin money as an emperor.)

India split up—The break-up of the empire was now complete. The kingdom of Delhi could not now boast of more than a few acres of land outside the city. Beyond it, the country was divided into numerous independent kingdoms, large and small, Hindu and Muhammadan—(In Northern India, there were Kashmir, Sind, Malwa, Gujarat, Jaunpur, Bengal and Mewar and other Rajput principalities.) (In Southern India, the two most important kingdoms were the

Sack of
Delhi

Fall of the
Tughlaks

Kingdoms
on the
break up of
the Sultan-
ate of Delhi.

Bahmani kingdom and the kingdom of Vijayanagar)

The Bahmani kingdom had been founded in 1347 by Hasan, an Afghan or Turki noble who had originally been, according to Firsihta, servant to a Delhi Brahman named Gangu through whose influence at court he gradually rose to power. Out of gratitude for his old master, Hasan appointed him his prime minister and himself took the title of Hasan Gangu Bahmani. According to another view Hasan called himself 'Bahman' because he claimed descent from the early Persian King so-called. The first capital of the Bahmani kingdom was Kulbarga, the second was Bidar, and the kingdom extended from the river Penganga to the Krishna and Tungabhadra. To the south of these rivers, lay the Hindu state of Vijayanagar which had grown up to be an extensive kingdom under the family founded by Bukka in the earlier part of the fourteenth century. Two other kingdoms also deserve mention — Khandesh and Orissa, occupying the north west and the north east corners of the Deccan respectively. Khandesh had become independent in 1399, as already stated. Orissa had never as yet acknowledged the Moslem sway, and its powerful rulers, the Ganga kings, had carried their arms into Bengal even during the palmy days of the 'Patban' empire.

Bahmani
kingdom.

Kingdom of
Vijayanagar.

Orissa

Effect of the split-up — The split up of the empire was followed, as a matter of course, by bitter hostilities and hard struggles among the independent kingdoms, formed out of its wreck. As a consequence, many a bloody revolution took place both in Northern and Southern India.

Revolutions in the kingdom of Delhi—After the death of Mahmud Tughlak in 1412, Delhi was seized by Daulat Khan Lodi, a noble of his court. But Khizr Khan governor of Multan, who had become powerful by joining Timur when the latter had invaded Delhi, expelled him in 1414 and took Delhi. Khizr Khan was a Syad, that is, a descendant of the Prophet, and the dynasty founded by him at Delhi is, therefore, known as the Syad Dynasty. Three weak kings succeeded Khizr Khan the last of whom was deposed by Bahlul Lodi, the Afghan governor of Lahore in 1450. Bahlul became the founder of a new dynasty at Delhi, called the Lodi Dynasty. He waged war against the kingdom of Jaunpur, and after a struggle of 26 years succeeded in annexing it to his own kingdom. His son Sekundar was a vigorous ruler. He annexed Behar and thus almost succeeded in re-establishing the sovereignty of Delhi over Northern India. But his successor Ibrahim Lodi was a weak and haughty prince. His ignorance and cruelty disgusted the nobles and rebellions broke out throughout the kingdom. Jaunpur again revolted while Daulat Khan Lodi, governor of the Punjab, invited Babar, the Moghul Sultan of Kabul, to come and depose the tyrant.

Babar invades India—Babar had been an adventurer from his youth. Having been expelled from his ancestral dominions in Central Asia at an early age, he succeeded, after various changes of fortune, in carving out a kingdom for himself round Kabul, over which he had been ruling since 1504. Being sixth in descent from Timur, he naturally looked upon India

Khizr Khan

The Syad
Dynasty

Bahlul Lodi

The Lodi
DynastySekundar
LodiIbrahim
LodiEarly life of
Babar

as his heritage and the Afghāns as usurpers. He therefore readily acceded to the request of Daulat Khan and marched towards Delhi. He was also helped by Sangram Sinha Rana of Mewar. This Rajput prince was then the most powerful chief in Northern India and for a long time had been bent on expelling the Afghans from Northern India and founding a Hindu empire once again. In the invasion of India by Babar he found an opportunity of weakening the Afghans and accordingly lent his aid to the Moghul invader.

Rana
Sangram

Panipat and Khanua decide the fate of Northern India — Babar and Ibrahim Lodi met in the memorable field of Panipat in 1526 and an obstinately contested battle ensued which raged from sunrise to sunset. The Moghuls won the day. Ibrahim was among the slain and the kingdom of Delhi passed into the hands of Babar. But the success of Bihar opened the eyes of Rana Sangram Sinha who had thought that the Moghul would only sack Delhi and go away like his predecessor Timur leaving him to establish a Hindu empire on the ruins of the Pathan sovereignty. So when the brave Rana saw that the Moghul had no intention of leaving India he determined to expel the intruder. Allying himself with some Afghan chiefs he marched against Babar. A decisive battle took place at Khanua near Sikri (Tatelpur Sikri) in 1527 and the Rajput army was defeated with great slaughter. The battles of Panipat and Khanua crippled the Afghan and the Rajput powers so much for the time being that the Moghul sovereignty was acknowledged over the greater portion of Northern India.

First battle
of Panipat

Battle of
Khanua.

Revolution in Southern India —While these revolutions were taking place in Northern India, events equally important were occurring in Southern India. The Bahmani kingdom was in constant strife with its Hindu neighbour the kingdom of Vijayanagar, and wars were generally carried on with great obstinacy and barbarity. But the Bahmani kingdom was soon torn asunder by internal feuds. Two parties were formed with *clashing interests*,—the Foreign and the Deccani. Mahmud Gawan was the head of the Foreign party and, for a quarter of a century, directed the affairs of the kingdom with eminent success. But Nizam ul Mulk Bahri, the leader of the Deccani party managed to poison the mind of the reigning Sultan against him and the great statesman was put to death by the order of the Sultan in 1481. Misrule and confusion followed, the vast kingdom began to fall to pieces, and by the time Babar invaded India, five distinct kingdoms had been formed out of its dominions. These were Bijapur, Berar, Ahmadnagar, Golconda and Bidar, founded respectively by Yusuf Adil Shah, Fateulla Imad Shah, Ahmad Nizam Shah, Kutb Shah and Kasim Barid.

Dismemberment of the Bahmani kingdom

States formed out of the Bahmani kingdom

Khaja
Jahan

Sharki
Dynasty

Mozuffer
Shah

Bahadur
Shah

Mozuffer III.

Dilawar
Ghor.

Jaunpur —The founder of the kingdom of Jaunpur was Khaja Jahan the governor whom Mahmud Tughlak (in 1394) had appointed to rule over his eastern provinces. He assumed the title of Malikush Sharki and the dynasty founded by him is called the Sharki dynasty. The Sharki government was subverted and the kingdom restored to Delhi by Bahlal Lodi in 1478. After the Moghul Conquest it came into the hands of Babar and was subsequently taken by Sher Shah. After the fall of the Sur dynasty it passed through different hands till conquered and annexed by Akbar early in his reign.

Gujarat —Gujarat was made independent practically in 1396 and formally in 1401 by its governor Jafar who took the title of Mozuffer Shah. His grandson and successor Ahmad removed the capital to a new place called Ahmadabad after his own name. The kings of Gujarat had constant fighting with their neighbours especially with Malwa. The most famous king was Bahadur Shah who ascended the throne in 1526. He annexed Malwa and took Chitor the capital of Mewar after a brave resistance offered by the Rajputs. Rani Karnavati (widow of Rana Sangram Sinha) of Mewar appealed to Humayun for help which was promptly given and Gujarat was annexed to the Moghul Empire. But Bahadur soon recovered his independence. Mozuffer III the last king of Gujarat made over the kingdom to Akbar in 1572 and became a grandee of the Moghul Empire.

Malwa —Malwa became independent in the reign of Mahmud Tughlak. Its first king was Dilawar Ghor whose forefathers were connected with the family of

Muhammad Ghori Vandu, the capital of the kingdom, was founded by the successor of Dilawar Malwa had many struggles with the kingdoms of Gujarat, Jaunpur, Khandesh, Mewar and the Bahmani kingdom. In the early part of the sixteenth century, a Rajput chief called Medini Ray obtained an ascendancy in the kingdom, and the reigning king was for a time forced to flee to Gujarat. In 1531, Bahadur Shah of Gujarat annexed the kingdom permanently to Gujarat as stated before.

Medini Ray

Khandesh —The first prince who asserted the independence of Khandesh was Malik Raja, who was a son in law of the king of Gujarat, from whom his son formally received the title of king (1399). Burhanpur afterwards became its capital. The dynasty ruled for two hundred years and the kingdom rose to great prosperity. It was annexed by Akbar in 1599.

Malik Raja.

The Hindu Kingdom of Vijayanagar —During the decline of the Delhi Sultanate a new family, which had set itself up in the place of the Hoysala Ballals of Dorasamudra, rose to greatness and independence. The founders of the family were two brothers named Harihar I and Bukka, and their capital was Vijayanagar on the Tungabhadra. The Bukka family had constant strifes with the neighbouring Bahmani kingdom. Towards the close of the fifteenth century, a new line of kings was begun by Narasinha Saluva, a minister of the last Bukka King. In 1505 the Saluva dynasty was overthrown by Narasa Nayaka, a Tuluva. Under this dynasty the

Bukka.

Narasinha

Tuluva
Dynasty

kingdom rose to the height of its power and a considerable portion of Southern India acknowledged its supremacy. The greatest king of the line was Krishnadeva Raya who ruled from 1509 to 1529 during which he recovered the fortress of Raichur temporarily occupied by Bijapur and stormed Kulbarga. The greatness and prosperity of Vijayanagar excited the jealousy of the various Muhammadan states of Southern India and they combined against it and completely destroyed its power at the battle of Talikot in 1565. The kingdom however lingered on though weak and narrow in extent for a long time afterwards. Shortly after the battle of Talikot the Tuluva dynasty was supplanted by the Karnata line of kings under whom the capital was removed to Pannond and afterwards to Chandragiri. It was from a Raja of Chandragiri that the English purchased the site of Madras in 1639.

Mewar —Of all the Rajput princes the Ranas of Mewar who belonged to the Guhila or Seesodia family are regarded as the noblest as they never degraded themselves by matrimonial alliance with the Muhammadans. Their history resounds with many stories of heroism which they displayed in fighting against foreign foes. The first historical king of Mewar was Aparajita (A.D. 661) but the traditional founder of the family was Bappa Rao who is said to have defended Chiter the capital against Muhammad Ibn Kasim. Rana Samara Singh who according to tradition married a sister of Prithviraj and fought and died in the second battle of Tarain really flourished in the last quarter of the

Krishnadeva
Raya

Battle of
Talikot

Chandragiri

Bappa Rao

Samara
Singha

thirteenth century. The gallant conduct of the garrison of Chitor when it was besieged by Alauddin and the subsequent recovery of the fort by Hamir—the effort of Rana Sangram for the restoration of the Hindu empire and the heroic stand made by Rana Pratap against the almost irresistible power of Akbar—all testify to the bravery and patriotism of the Mewar Rajputs. The kingdom submitted on honourable terms to Jahangir but Rana Raj Singh bravely and successfully led the Rajput revolt against Aurangzeb when that short-sighted emperor departed from the liberal policy of his predecessors and began to persecute the Hindus.

Hamir, Sangram and Pratap

Raj Singh

Orissa—We have seen how Anantavarman Chola Ganga-deva conquered Orissa and built the temple of Jagannath at Puri in commemoration of his conquest in the twelfth century A.D. This temple received further improvement at the hands of Ananga Bhumdeva the fifth king of the family. The Ganga kings never acknowledged the Pathan sway and were so powerful that even in the time of Alauddin Khilji when the Delhi Sultanate was at the height of its power they invaded Bengal and conquered a large portion of it. In or about 1434 A.D. the last Ganga king was deposed by his minister who founded the Gajapati dynasty. When Prataprudhadev the last great Gajapati king, was ruling the celebrated Vajiravada reformer Chaitanya visited Puri and preached his religion there. The Gajapatis were succeeded by another line of kings who ruled from 1541 to 1560 after whom Mukundadeva of Tehmuri occupied the throne of Orissa. But in 1565 Kalapahar the general of king Sulaiman conquered the kingdom and annexed it to Bengal.

Chola Ganga Deva

Ananga Bhumdeva

Pratap-rudradeva

Mukunda de

CHAPTER IV

STATE OF THE COUNTRY FROM THE COMMENCEMENT OF THE 'PATHAN' RULE TO THE MOGHUL CONQUEST

The Muhammadans a new element in the Indian population —The Muhammadan conquest of the country was accompanied as a matter of course by many important social and religious changes. The first notable change that strikes a historian of this period is the introduction of a new element in the population of India. Though the Muhammadans used to come to India before Muhammad Ghor's conquests, their chief object was plunder or trade. But from after these conquests the Muhammadans began to settle in large numbers in India and became part and parcel of the general population. Kutbuddin and all his successors on the throne of Delhi had no foreign homes but became Indian kings in the proper sense of the term.

Muham
madan
rule—not a
foreign rule

The Muhammadans seek Converts —Thus Hindu society was confronted by Muhammadan society and each began to influence and affect the other specially in those parts of the country which came under the direct rule of the Pathans. As Muhammadanism is a proselytising religion when the governing power came into the hands of the Musalmans they naturally began to seek converts. They offered the privilege of the ruling class to every one who became a convert to their faith while a poll tax called *Jizya* was imposed

Spread of
Muhammad
anism

on all non-Musalmans. The result was that a large number of Hindus in the United Provinces and Bengal chiefly of the lower classes, adopted the new faith.

Friendly feeling begins to grow between the Hindus and the Muhammadans.—The majority of the Hindus, however, did not renounce the faith of their ancestors. In time, the fierce spirit of proselytism naturally wasted its strength and began to subside. A spirit of toleration sprang up. This was specially the case when the 'Pathan' empire declined, and many independent Muhammadan kingdoms were formed out of it. As the rulers of these kingdoms had to depend much upon the good will of their Hindu subjects for the preservation of their power, a friendly feeling was established between the Hindus and the Muhammadans, and they began not only to adopt each other's manners and customs, but also sometimes permitted intermarriage between the two races.

Relation
between
Hindus and
Muham-
madans.

The Brahmans attempt to protect Hindu society against foreign influence.—While the Musalmans were seeking to spread Islam among the people, the Hindus were not idle. They saw the danger which menaced their faith, and began to work. Seeing that they had very few kings to protect their religion the Brahmans began to resort to strict rules and regulations for the discipline and guidance of Hindus and many important *Smriti* 'compilations like those of Madhavacharyya and Raghunandan were made during this period.

Smriti com-
pilations.

The Sannyasis carry religion to the hearts of the people.—But the learned teachings of the Brahmans could hardly reach the lower classes, from

Rise of
religious
sects

among whom the largest number of converts were gathered by the Musalmans. The task of appealing to these classes was reserved for the *Sannyasi* teachers who made no distinction of caste or creed in selecting disciples and tried to meet the proselytising spirit of Islam by preaching the doctrine of the fundamental equality of all religions. Sincere faith in God they proclaimed was the only way to salvation whatever might be the outward tenets of the religion professed.

Their
teaching

Ramananda

Of the great *Sannyasi* reformers of the period Ramananda was the first to take the field. He preached the Vaishnava doctrine of one God under the name of Rama. He wandered through Northern India and chose his disciples mostly from among the despised classes.

Kavir

One of Ramananda's disciples was the famous Kavir a weaver by caste. Kavir flourished in the beginning of the fifteenth century when friendly relations between the Hindus and the Muhammadans had already begun. Following the spirit of the age he tried to modify the Vaishnava doctrine so as to include Hinduism and Muhammadism alike. The God of the Hindus, he declared is also the God of the Musalmans.

Nanak

Then came Nanak the great founder of the Sikh sect in the Punjab. He lived from 1469 to 1539 preached the same doctrine of universal toleration and counted among his followers a number of Muhammadans.

Chaitanya

But probably the greatest of the reformers of the age was Chaitanya who was born of a Brahman

* family at Navdwipa in Bengal in 1485. He was the most learned scholar of the day and had bright prospects before him. But he forsook the world at the age of 24 and devoted himself to the awakening of religious zeal in the hearts of his countrymen.

God he preached* is attainable only through faith and love. The great reformer disappeared in 1533. It is a notable fact that one of his chief disciples was a Muhammadan by birth.

Religious Revival leads to the development of Vernacular Literature—The efforts of Hinduism against the inroads of Muhammadanism deeply influenced Indian literature. While the orthodox Brahmins compiled voluminous *Smṛiti* works in Sanskrit the *Sannyasi* preachers addressed the people by works in the popular dialects. Some of the modern vernaculars were thus raised to a literary status. The followers of Ramananda and Kabir improved the Hindi literature while the Bengali and the Punjabi literatures received a great development at the hands of the followers of Chaitanya and Nanak respectively. Among the vernacular writers of this period were the Vaisnava poets Vidyapati and Chandidas, the sweetness of whose songs is still appreciated by millions in Behar and Bengal. Vidyapati and Chandidas lived about a century earlier than Chaitanya and the writings of both are marked by that religious fervour which forms one of the principal characteristics of the age.

Indian literature in Pathan times

Vidyapati and Chandidas

The Pathan Government—The Pathan Government was an absolute monarchy. The kings were in theory bound to observe the Muhammadan law

Absolute monarchy

but there were no means short of a rebellion to enforce their obedience to it. The kings were generally easy of access, and used to transact the state business everyday in the open *darbar* or court, thus giving publicity to their decisions and principles of government. The *Vazir* or the Prime Minister was next in authority to the king and exercised great powers, sometimes even overshadowing his master. The provincial governors each within his jurisdiction, wielded almost absolute authority and were always ready to assert their independence, whenever the central government was weak.

The "Pathan" conquest did not extinguish Hindu rule and influence — The system of internal administration of the country remained mainly Hindu, though modified to a certain extent by the regulations of the Pathan rulers. The Pathan emperors held the country in military occupation; they planted military colonies or garrisons of soldiers in the large cities and important centres of Hindu influence to keep the conquered people in check, the rest of the country was left in the hands of the Hindu rulers. These Hindu princes were not interfered with so long as they paid the tribute regularly, or at least acknowledged the nominal sovereignty of the Pathans. Whenever defied, the Pathan emperor would march against the refractory chief and would not shrink from any barbarity or cruelty to bring him back into submission. In the latter part of the Pathan period, when friendly intercourse had sprung up between the Muhammadans and the Hindus, the latter were employed in large numbers to carry on the administration

Vazir

Provincial
government.Nature of
the Pathan
ruleStatus of the
Hindus

The revenue officers were mostly Hindu, while some of the most celebrated ministers and military leaders belonged to the same race

The "Pathan" Army at once a source of strength and weakness to the Empire —The Pathan army was of a mixed character, and consisted of various elements. The armies of the Slave kings were mainly drawn from the Turki and Afghan tribes, but the Khiljis strengthened themselves by taking into their service a large number of Tartar adventurers converted Moghuls, and renegade Hindus. The immigration of hardy tribesmen from Central Asia continued during the whole of this period and most of these went to increase the number and strength of the Pathan army. Any leader who could bring with him a large following called himself an *amir*, and the collective body of such *amirs*, in the service of Delhi, was known as the *Amirani Sada*. These adventurers had, of course, no inherent feeling of loyalty to the Pathan sovereign, and they were ever ready to rise in rebellion whenever it suited their ends. None but a very strong ruler could control an army composed of such heterogeneous elements. The moment the weakness of Muhammad Tughlak manifested itself, the army began to show unerring signs of demoralisation, and the fate of the "Pathan" empire was sealed.

Heterogeneity of the Pathan army

Amirani Sada

'Pathan' Art and Literature —India owes some of its finest architectural monuments to the "Pathans". The beautiful *Kutb Minar* near Delhi was built by Altamash in memory of a Muhammadan saint. The *Atala Mosque* of Junpur and the *Golden Mosque*

Pathan architecture.

CHAPTER V

TEMPORARY SOVEREIGNTY OF THE MOGHULS — RESTORATION OF THE PATHANS

Babar, the first Moghul Sovereign of Delhi — We have seen how Babar, after crushing the Pathans and the Rajputs, succeeded in founding the Moghul sovereignty in Northern India. But he did not live long to consolidate the newly founded power. He died in 1530, only three years after the memorable battle of Khanua, leaving four sons, of whom Humayun was the eldest.

Babar's
short reign
at Delhi

Babar's Character — Babar was a soldier of great daring and strength. He tells us in his autobiography that in his old age 'after his health had begun to fail he rode in two days a distance of 160 miles and on the same journey twice swam across the Ganges, as he had done with every other river he had met with.' His mind was as full of vigour as his body. Besides attending to the business of his kingdom, he looked after agricultural improvements and public works. He had to suffer such hardships and privations as seldom fall to the lot of a prince, and yet he bore them all with a patient and cheerful spirit. He had a very kind and affectionate heart which he retained up to the end of his life. He encouraged learning and was a great scholar himself, he composed many beautiful Persian poems in the midst of the all-engrossing duties of the state. His autobiography is a very

His auto-
biography

charming work and is still the best account we have of his life

Humayun's
illness

Death of Babar — A romantic story is told about the death of Babar. In 1530 Humayun his eldest son became dangerously ill and his condition became so bad that the court physicians gave up all hope of his life. Babar who loved Humayun dearly consulted some holy men who told him that if he could give away the most valuable thing he had in the name of God his son might be saved. Upon this he made up his mind to sacrifice his own life for that of his son. Firmly resisting the entreaties of his friends who suggested that he might reasonably substitute the most precious jewel in his possession for his life, he walked three times round the bed of the dying prince and earnestly prayed to God to transfer the disease to him. Then he felt that his prayer was heard and he exclaimed, "I have borne it away, I have borne it away." Strange to say that from that moment Humayun began to recover while the old king declined and died shortly after enjoining all to live in peace and amity and his children to love one another.

Babar's
sacrifice

Division of
the empire

Its effect

Humayun succeeds Babar, but is beset with difficulties. — Humayun succeeded to his father's throne at Delhi, while his second brother Kamran got the Western Punjab and Afghanistan. This division of the infant empire was an injudicious step, specially as Kamran entertained no brotherly feeling towards Humayun. Babar like the Pathan rulers of Delhi had drawn his troops from the countries beyond the Indus but as these were now in the hand of his hostile brother Humayun could hardly expect

to get any help from that quarter. Moreover, brave and amiable as he was, he lacked the tact and ability of his father, and was, therefore, not fitted to hold his own in such stormy times. The dangers surrounding his throne were indeed very great. Bahadur Shah, king of Gujarat, had annexed Malwa and was fast rising in power in the west, while the Pathans of the eastern provinces of the Delhi empire were rallying again under a powerful chief named Sher Khan.

Bahadur
Shah of
Gujarat,

Sher Khan

He conquers Gujarat, but cannot keep it.—In 1535, Humayun marched against Gujarat to punish Bahadur Shah for having sheltered and aided some of his enemies. He totally defeated Bahadur, and annexed Gujarat and Malwa to the empire of Delhi. But shortly after, Humayun had to proceed to Behar to check the growing power of Sher Khan, and Bahadur, who had fled to the island of Diu, came back and recovered his kingdom.

Adventurous career of Sher Shah.—Sher was not an ordinary enemy. He was the son of a Pathan *jagirdar* at Sasseram in Behar, but he left home at an early age on account of the intrigues of his step-mother and neglect of his father and began life as a soldier of fortune under the government of Jaunpur. He, however, did not devote his whole time to military exercises but earnestly engaged himself in the study of history, poetry and other branches of knowledge in some of which he acquired considerable proficiency. Subsequently he was restored to the favour of his father whose *jagir* he managed for sometime. But he again found his paternal home too hot for him and

Sher's early
life

His training

entered into the service of Sultan Sekundar Lodi at Delhi. After the death of his father the *jagir* at Sasseram was conferred on him but he could not keep it long on account of the intrigues of his half brother. Meanwhile the battle of Panipat had been fought and Babar had established himself in Delhi. Sher Khan now joined Babar and shortly after recovered his own *jagir* by force (1528). Next year he joined the Lodis in Behar against Babar but on their defeat he again submitted to the latter. After the death of the king of Behar he secured an ascendancy over his minor son and successor and soon made himself master of the kingdom. He further strengthened his position by getting possession of the forts of Chunar and Rhotas the former by marrying its beress and the latter by treachery. During the absence of Humayun in Gujarat he not only consolidated his power in Behar but even invaded Bengal. It was while he was engaged in this enterprise that Humayun marched against him with a powerful army and laid siege to the fort of Chunar.

Humayun's defeat near Buxar—Chunar was ultimately taken after a siege of several months but Sher was able in the meantime to inflict a crushing defeat on the king of Bengal. After taking Chunar Humayun marched into Bengal but the rains set in and his army suffered terribly. Meanwhile Sher Khan who had retired to the hills on the approach of Humayun issued from his retreat recovered Chunar and even pushed westwards as far as Kanauj. Humayun now hastened back to Agra. But Sher intercepted him on his march at Chausa near Buxar.

Sher's shifting policy

Sher as master of Behar

Invasion of Bengal

Humayun in Bengal

For some weeks the two armies lay watching each other and then negotiations were opened. Sher however suddenly made a treacherous night attack on Humayun's camp and routed the Moghul army. Humayun plunged into the Ganges and would have perished but for a water-carrier who floated him across the river with the help of his inflated *mashak* (or the skin to hold water). He reached Agra only with a small retinue. He gratefully rewarded the service of the water-carrier by making him king in his place for a few hours. It is said that the water-carrier utilized his opportunity by making handsome provision for himself and his friends (1539).

Battle of
Buxar

Humayun's
narrow
escape

Humayun is finally defeated at Kanauj and flees—Retaking Agra Humayun began to make preparations for a fresh struggle with the daring Pathan chief who in the meanwhile contented himself with consolidating his conquests. In the next year Humayun once more moved from Agra and met Sher Khan at Kanauj but the Moghul army was again defeated and was driven into the Ganges. Humayun would have been killed or taken if he had not fortunately found an elephant on the back of which he crossed the river. After this he was forced to flee from his kingdom with his family.

Battle of
Kanauj

Sher Shah restores the Pathan Rule at Delhi—Sher Khan who had already taken the title of Sher Shah as a token of royal dignity now ascended the throne of Delhi. Thus disappeared the infant Moghul Empire and the Old Pathan sovereignty was restored to some of its past pomp and power. Sher belonged to the same Sur tribe from which Muhammad Ghori

The Sur
Dynasty

was descended and the dynasty he founded at Delhi is known as the Sur Dynasty

Kamran's
faithlessness

Humayun's flight from the country — After his defeat at Kanauj Humayun fled to his brother Kamran at Lahore. But Kamran was afraid of incurring the displeasure of Sher, he made peace with the conqueror, ceded the Punjab to him and himself retired to Kabul leaving Humayun to shift for himself. The ex-emperor in his distress turned to Sind hoping to induce its chief to recognize his former authority. But after a year and a half of useless negotiations and fruitless hostilities he was forced to seek a shelter in Marwar. Repulsed thence he recrossed the desert and came to Umarkot. Here on the 23rd November 1542 was born his famous son Akbar. After making another fruitless attempt to conquer Sind Humayun at last left India and went to Kandahar which belonged to Kamran. But finding that he was not safe there he fled to Persia leaving the infant Akbar at the mercy of his uncle (1543).

Birth of
Akbar

Sher builds up an empire before his death — Meanwhile Sher was extending his dominions. The defeat of Humayun and the retreat of Kamran left him master of the greater portion of Northern India including Bengal, Behar, Delhi and the Punjab. In 1542 he conquered Malwa and in 1543 laid siege to the fort of Raisin, the garrison of which surrendered on terms. But when the latter left the fort Sher Shah broke his pledge and massacred them. He next took Chitor and then turned to Kalinjar which still belonged to the old Chandella Rajputs.

Malwa

Siege of
Raisin

Chitor

The Raja of Kalinjar refused to come to terms with Sher as he had broken his faith at Raisin and the fort could be taken only after a desperate struggle in the course of which Sher received a mortal wound and died

Kalinjar

Sher's death

Sher Shah's Administration—Sher Shah was a daring soldier and vigorous ruler. He restored order in the provinces and introduced many important reforms in his civil government which remained even after the downfall of his dynasty. He is said to have established a system of horse posts and constructed a high road from Bengal to the western extremity of the Punjab.

Sher's reforms

He was a great friend of the ryots on whose welfare and security he held depended the prosperity of an Indian kingdom. He protected them against undue extortions of revenue officers and would not on any account allow their crops to be damaged. He caused a survey of the kingdom to be made and fixed the government demand at one fourth of the produce. He effected a reform in the currency and changed the name of the *tanka* of Altmash into that of *rupya* from which the modern name *rupee* is derived.

Protection to ryots

Survey

Rupee

Sher Shah's Empire does not long survive his death—On the death of Sher Shah his second son Islam Shah or Selim Shah was raised to the throne. He ruled wisely for eight years and died in 1553 leaving a little son. But this boy was murdered by an uncle who ascended the throne under the title of Muhammad Adil Shah. Adil was a man of 1 character and was altogether incompetent to

Islam Shah

Himu

But he entrusted the government to a Hindu named Himu or Hemchandra who had once been a shop-keeper. In spite of his mean origin and feeble health, Himu proved to be a very brave general and an able administrator. He is said to have gained no less than twenty-two battles for his master. But the rewards and honours which the emperor showered

Rebellions

on his low-born favourite highly offended the proud Afghan nobles, and rebellions broke out everywhere. One of the principal nobles collected some of the malcontents and raised the standard of revolt near Chunar. Adil and Himu succeeded in defeating the rebels, but in the meantime Ibrahim Sur, a member

Ibrahim Sur

of the emperor's own family, seized on Delhi and Agra, and Adil was forced to confine himself to the eastern part of his dominions. Ibrahim, in his turn, was shortly after expelled from his newly acquired territory by another member of the royal family named Sekundar Sur, who had proclaimed himself king in the Punjab. Ibrahim fled to the east and was there met and defeated by Himu.

Sekundar Sur

Humayun re-enters India and recovers Delhi.—Taking advantage of these dissensions among the Afghan chiefs, Humayun re-entered India. He had secured aid from the king of Persia and had already made himself master of Kabul and Kandahar, after defeating his traitorous brother, Kamran. He now defeated Sekundar at Sirhind, and took possession of Delhi and Agra (1555).

Battle of Sirhind

But dies shortly after — As Sekundar tried to rally in the Punjab, Humayun sent his son Akbar and his general Burhan there to crush him. But shortly

after, Humayun fell down the stairs of his library and died on the 24th January, 1556

Himu tries to save the tottering Pathan power—On hearing the news, Himu, who had just suppressed a rebellion in Bengal, advanced with a large army to recover the lost possession of his master Delhi and Agra easily fell into his hands, and he marched towards Lahore to expel Akbar, who had been proclaimed emperor immediately after the death of Humayun

Himu's activity.

Panipat again decides the fate of the Pathans—Akbar and Bairam met Himu at Panipat in November 1556 In the battle that followed, the faithful Himu displayed all the skill and bravery of a consummate general but an arrow pierced his eye and his army was totally routed The wounded chief was taken prisoner and brought bound to the Moghul camp It is said that Bairam asked Akbar to slay the Hindu at once but the generous prince refused to strike a brave and helpless adversary, whereupon Bairam himself despatched him with his own hand Thus the fate of the Afghan sovereignty in India was again decided on the field of Panipat This time it fell never to rise again

Second battle of Panipat

Himu's fate.

Final fall of the Pathans

CHAPTER VI

FOUNDATION OF THE MOGHUL EMPIRE

Akbar the Great

Natural gifts and education fitted Akbar to be a great emperor — Akbar was only a boy of fourteen when he overthrew the Afghans at the second battle of Panipat. But the boy was eminently fitted for the work which he was now called upon to perform. His early life had been one long chapter of misfortunes and hardships. He was born, as we have seen, in the desert when his father was fleeing from his kingdom and was seeking in vain a resting place where he could shelter himself and his family. When merely an infant his parents had to leave him at the mercy of an uncle whose attitude towards Humayun and his family was always characterised by bitter hatred and gross treachery. Even when he was restored to his parents he had to pass his life in camps. He not only used to be present in the council chamber of his father but always accompanied him in his campaigns difficult and dangerous as they usually were. The political and military lessons thus acquired were not lost upon him. It was this training added to his natural genius that enabled him to cope successfully with the difficulties that beset him at his accession.

Akbar's difficulties at his accession — These difficulties were indeed very great. Though the

Training in
The school
of adversity

Boy Soldier
and
Councillor

battle of Pampat had crushed the centre of the Afghan power, its immediate effect was simply to secure the Moghul sovereignty only over Delhi and Agra Akbar had to fight, before his authority could be established in other parts of the former Delhi empire Nor could he rely upon his own officers and troops, most of whom were mere adventurers, who cared more for self aggrandisement than for uniting in building up a Moghul empire Akbar, however, acted with great vigour, and in four years cleared the country of the Afghans as far east as Jaunpur

The boy
king's
vigour

Akbar under guardianship --During this time his chief adviser and guardian was Bairam Khan, whose energy and military talent had seated Akbar on the throne Bairam ably managed the affairs of the state, controlled the ambitious officers and preserved order and discipline But he had grown too big for a subject, in power and influence he was second to none in the state, and even Akbar felt that he was a mere puppet in his hands His arrogance and high handedness naturally displeased everybody, and his cruelty was particularly distasteful to Akbar

Bairam
Khan the
Regent

Akbar assumes the government --At last in 1560, Akbar determined to throw off the thra'dom 'One day the young king suddenly proclaimed in public that he had taken the government into his own hands Bairam, taken aback, rebelled but was defeated and pardoned Akbar treated him with respect and allowed him to retire to Mecca But on his way he was assassinated in Gojarat by an Afghan whose father he had killed in battle

Fall of
Bairam

Akbar sets his dominions in order--For the next

seven years, Akbar was occupied in pacifying his kingdom and establishing his authority over his own ambitious officers. Soon after the fall of Bairam, Sher Shah II, a son of Adil, advanced with a large Pathan army to Jaunpur but was completely routed by Khan Zeman, one of Akbar's generals. About the same time, another general succeeded in expelling the rebellious Pathan governor of Malwa while a third general distinguished himself by the conquest of Garamandal, from the heroic Rani Durgavati, daughter of the last Chandella king of Kalinjar. But these eminent officers, now that they had been released from the iron hand of Bairam Khan, were not disposed to obey their young master. They despised his feeble resources and wished to carve out independent kingdoms for themselves. Even his brother, Mirza Hakim the governor of Kabul was not faithful to him for while Akbar was busy in checking the rebellions of his officers Hakim siezed on Lahore and occupied the greater portion of the Punjab (1556). Akbar was however, equal to the occasion and by the time he had completed his twenty fifth year, he had succeeded in putting down all revolts and disturbances.

And then looks for conquests—Akbar was now free to turn his thoughts to the foreign states in the country the annexation of which was essential to the completion of his empire. This he effected partly by force of arms and partly by the policy of conciliation.

Akbar wins Rajputana by conciliatory measures. Rajputana first engaged his attention. The brave inhabitants of this tract of country had always

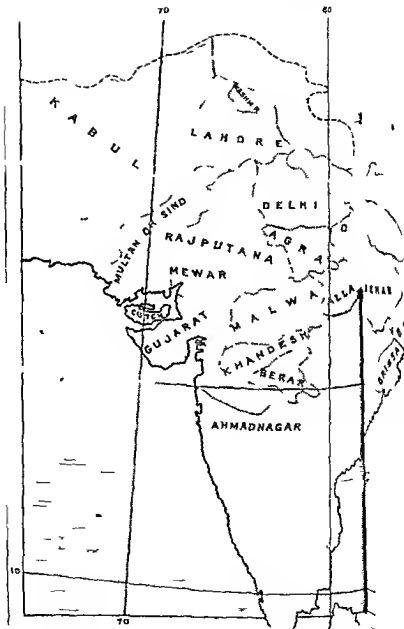
Sher
Shah II

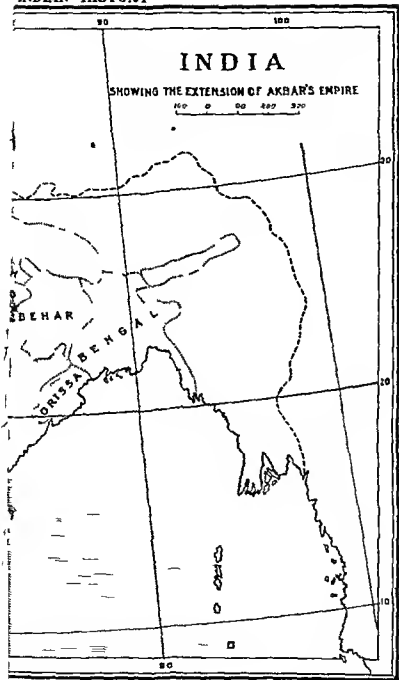
Malwa,

Garamandal

Insubordi-
nate
generals

Mirza
Hakim





offered the most stubborn resistance to the Moslem conquerors and had never been completely subdued. The genius of an empire-builder, with which Akbar was naturally gifted, told him that the best way of dealing with such men was to treat them as friends rather than as foes. He accordingly adopted a policy of conciliation, instead of one of aggression, towards them, and won them over by friendly overtures and matrimonial alliances. He married a daughter of Bhar Mal, Raja of Ambar (Jaipur), and appointed his father-in-law and his brother-in-law Bhagavandas to high offices in the state. Many other Rajput chiefs accepted service under Akbar, and within a short time, the greater portion of Rajputana was brought under the control of the Moghul emperor.

Rajput spirit.

Rajput alliances

But Mewar holds out—Mewar would not submit and Akbar marched against its capital Chitor in 1568. Rana Sangram Sinha, the opponent of Babar, was now dead and his son Uday Sinha was reigning in his stead. On the approach of Akbar, Uday Sinha retired to the Aravalli hills, leaving a strong garrison under Jaimal to defend Chitor. This garrison offered resistance to the Moghuls but one night its brave leader, while superintending some repairs in the rampart of the fort, was shot dead by Akbar. In despair, the Rajputs committed their women to flames, rushed out to meet the besiegers and fell fighting bravely. Uday Sinha, however, remained independent till his death in his mountain fastnesses, where he founded a new capital called after his name Udaipur.

Uday Sinha

Capture of Chitor

After his death, his son and successor, the famous

Heroism of
Rana
Pratap

Rana Pratap continued a brave struggle against the Moghul empire amidst all sorts of privations and misfortunes. He took a solemn oath that he would not brush his beard or eat off gold and silver plates or lie on anything but straw until he should recover Chitor from the Musulmans. The Ranas of Udaipur still keep the letter of this oath by placing leaves under their gold dishes and straw under their silk beds. Pratap laid waste the plain of Mewar and retired with his men to the hills from where he would swoop down and cut off detachments of the Moghul army whenever he found an opportunity. The Moghuls under Prince Selim and Man Sinha (nephew and adopted son of Raja Bhagavandas) however gave him no rest. He was chased from rock to rock, his children were starving and in rags, and he at last began to think of flying towards the Indus. Then the tide of his fortune turned and he rapidly gained ground till he succeeded in recovering most of his dominions.

Gujarat

Akbar annexes Gujarat and conquers Bengal—Gujarat was in a state of anarchy and various factions were contending for power. Itimad Khan head of one of the factions became supreme for a while but finding it hard to maintain his situation invited Akbar to take possession of the kingdom. Akbar annexed Gujarat in 1573 and granted its king extensive *jagirs* for his maintenance. Akbar's next triumph was the conquest of Bengal. This country was now held by Daud son of Sulaiman Kararani who had made himself master of Bengal after the fall of the Sur dynasty. Sulaiman had been a powerful

Bengal and
Orissa

prince and his general Kalapahar, a renegade Hindu, had annexed Orissa to Bengal in 1565. But Daud was a weak king. He at first submitted to the Great Moghul but afterwards reasserted his independence, whereupon Akbar invaded Bengal and annexed the kingdom in 1575. Daud, who still retained possession of Orissa, renewed hostilities, but was defeated and killed. The country was not, however pacified. The Moghul officers whom Akbar had appointed to rule the province, as well as the Pathans, defied the emperor's authority. Akbar, therefore appointed Hindu governors first Todar Mall and then Man Sinha, who succeeded in crushing the rebellious spirit.

Fall of
Daud

The conquest of Northern India completed and consolidated.—The death of his brother Mirza Hakim, placed Kabul in the immediate possession of Akbar in 1585. Shortly after, Akbar sent an expedition to Kashmir, its king submitted and was granted an extensive *jagir* by Akbar. Kashmir was annexed and became the favourite summer retreat of the Moghul emperors. In 1591, Akbar conquered Sind and appointed the ruling chief to a high rank among the nobles of Delhi, according to his practice. Kandahar had been taken by the Persians about the beginning of Akbar's reign, but in 1595 Akbar succeeded in re-annexing it to the Moghul empire. Thus in less than forty years, the conquest of Northern India was not only completed, but was strongly secured by the acquisition of such outlying frontier states as Kabul and Kandahar.

Kabul

Kashmir

Sind

Kandahar

Southern India at the accession of Akbar.—The next object of Akbar was to conquer Southern India

Here, however, he did not meet with much success. We have seen, how, about the time of Babar's invasion five independent Muhammadan kingdoms—Bijapur, Ahmadnagar, Golconda, Bidar and Berar—sprang up on the ruins of the Bahmani kingdom in the Deccan. These kingdoms were constantly at strife with one another. But they often entered into alliances and hostilities on no fixed principles. At one time Ahmadnagar made an alliance with the Hindu kingdom of Vijayanagar against Bijapur, and at another time, the latter allied itself with the same Hindu state to harass Ahmadnagar. Again in 1563, all the Muhammadan states merged their differences in a combined effort against their Hindu neighbour and completely destroyed its power at the battle of Talikot. But after the destruction of the Hindu kingdom, they renewed their hostilities among themselves. Berar, the most northern of these kingdoms, was the first to succumb, and was absorbed about 1574 by Ahmadnagar. Bidar was next to fall. It was conquered about 1609 or a little later by Bijapur. Thus about the close of the sixteenth and the beginning of the seventeenth century, only three out of the five offshoots of the Bahmani kingdom survived, viz., Ahmadnagar, Bijapur and Golconda. Besides these, there was the small kingdom of Khandesh, which still retained its independence.

Akbar's conquests in Southern India—In 1594 Ahmadnagar was torn into faction on the death of its king. One of the parties applied to Akbar for help and Akbar, who had been looking out for an opportunity to conquer the Deccan, readily accepted the invitation

Interneine
struggles in
Southern
India

Battle of
Talikot

Ahmadna
gar

He sent a powerful army under his son Murad But before the Mughal army could reach the place the people of Ahmadnagar had placed the power of the state in the hands of Chand Sultana This heroic lady was a princess of Ahmadnagar and a widowed queen of Bijapur • She displayed such wonderful bravery in defending the capital against the Moghul army that Murad was compelled to raise the siege and retire satisfied with the cession of Berar only But shortly after fresh dissensions broke out in Ahmadnagar and the aid of the Moghuls was again sought for by one of the parties Prince Murad once more proceeded to Ahmadnagar but his ill success led Akbar to go there in person in 1599 About this time Chand Sultana was murdered by her mutinous troops, and Ahmadnagar fell an easy prey to the emperor Still the fall of the capital did not produce the submission of the kingdom and the old royal family continued to rule over a large portion of its territories for some years to come

The kingdom of Khandesh was annexed by Akbar soon after the fall of Ahmadnagar, while the kings of Bijapur and Golconda sought and obtained the friendship of the mighty Moghul emperor Akbar then returned to his capital leaving his son Danyal as viceroy of his possessions in the Deccan

Last days of Akbar not happy —The last days of Akbar were not happy While he was engaged in the Deccan, his eldest son, Selim, rebelled against him The emperor, however pardoned the prince and treated him kindly But Selim gave the severest shock to the feelings of his father by secretly procur-

ing the murder of Abul Fazl Akbar's favourite minister and the historian of his reign whom the prince had always though without just cause looked upon as his mortal enemy Akbar's second son Murad died in 1599 and in 1603 the emperor received the news of the death of his youngest son Danyal

Akbar nominates his successor and dies — All these afflictions proved too much for the old emperor. He rapidly sank and the courtiers began to speculate as to the succession. Prince Selim was the acknowledged heir but his excesses and his rebellion had made him very unpopular. On the other hand Khusru the eldest son of Selim was nephew of Raja Man Sinha of Jaipur and son in law of Aziz the first of Akbar's generals and these great personages wanted to elevate this prince to the throne to the exclusion of his father. But Akbar repeatedly declared Selim to be his successor and thus put an end to all intrigues. The great monarch died in October 1603.

Akbar's character — Akbar was the real founder of the Moghul empire and is regarded as the greatest of all the Musalman sovereigns of India. Literary education he had but little but he was naturally endowed with a genius of the very highest order. His physical strength and power of endurance were equally wonderful. Though a great warrior and captain he had no passion for war and was always averse to unnecessary bloodshed. His tender heart led him to discourage capital punishment and the use of animal food. He was affectionate to his friends and merciful to his enemies. Like his great contemporary Queen Elizabeth of England he loved his subjects and

Abul Fazl

Death of
Murad and
Danyal

Selim and
his son
Khusru

Akbar and
Elizabeth



AKBAR.

placed a *Sipahsalar* or Commander-in-Chief, who was vested with both civil and military control Under each *Sipahsalar* there was a *Dewan* who was entrusted with the charge of the whole revenue department Justice was administered by *Mir-adls* and *Kazis*, who were helped by other officers The police in a town were under an officer called *Kotwal* while in the villages the duty of maintaining peace and order was in the hands of the villagers themselves

Sipahsalar

Dewan

Justice and
Police

Military officers or *Mansabdars* were divided into various classes from the commanders of ten thousand downwards The commands of the highest class were generally reserved for the princes of the royal blood Akbar did not like the system of granting assignments of land for the maintenance of troops and introduced the system of paying them in cash as far as practicable

Organisation
of the army

The revenue arrangements of Akbar were excellent, and were principally due to his great finance minister, Raja Todar Mall The whole of Hindusthan was carefully surveyed, lands were classified according to their fertility, and the revenue was fixed at a third of the gross produce The payment was generally made in money, but every husbandman was allowed to pay in kind, if he thought the money rate was fixed too high These land settlements were at first repeated every year, but to save trouble and vexation, they were afterwards made for ten years The revenue system of Akbar survives even to the present day

Todar Mall's
revenue
reforms.

Malik Ambar, an Abyssinian tried to restore the kingdom to its former prosperity and repeatedly defeated the Moghul troops. But at last Jahangir sent Prince Khurram against him with a powerful army, and he was compelled to come to terms (1621). As a reward for the services of Prince Khurram in Mewar and in the Deccan, Jahangir conferred on him the title of *Shah Jahan* (King of the World).

Malik
Ambar
†

Jahangir marries Nur Jahan — In 1611 Jahangir married a beautiful Persian widow known in history as Nur Jahan. This lady was the daughter of Mirza Ghias, whose father served for sometime as the Vazir of the ruler of Khorasan. Being reduced to poverty, after his father's demise, Mirza was emigrating to India with his wife and family, when on his way Nur Jahan was born at Kandahar. Feeling the burden of a new born babe to be too much for him, Mirza thought of leaving her on the roadside. But a rich merchant noticed the baby and, feeling compassion for her, did all he could to provide for her nursing. Afterwards he introduced the family to Akbar, who took Mirza Ghias and his sons into his service. Nur Jahan (or Meherun nesa as she was then called) grew up to be a very beautiful girl, and is said to have attracted the attention of Prince Selim on several occasions, when she visited Akbar's harem with her mother. The story goes on that Akbar did not like this and, to put her out of his son's way, bestowed her on a brave Persian officer of his, named Sher Afghan, to whom he gave a *jagir* in Bengal. On his accession to the throne, Jahangir, we are told, ordered Sher Afghan to divorce his wife, and on his refusal had him killed.

Story of
Nur Jahan.

Sher
Afghan.

Credibility
of the story

Meherun nesa was brought to the emperor's harem and after a short time became his wife under the title of Nur Jahan (Light of the World) or Nur Mahal (Light of the Palace). We do not know how far the latter part of the story is authentic. It is significant that the contemporary European travellers are silent about Jahangir's guilt in the Sher Afghan affair. The truth seems to be that Sher was suspected of treason and perished in an attempt to resist his removal from Bengal which was then a hot bed of disaffection and seditious conspiracy. After her husband's death Meherun nesa was removed to the imperial court where her relations held offices. There she caught the eye of Jahangir at the vernal fancy bazar and became his queen.

Nur Jahan's
influence

Nur Jahan becomes the real Ruler—Nur Jahan was a very clever, accomplished and intelligent lady and the emperor soon became a puppet in her hands. Her father was made prime minister and her brother Asaf Khan was raised to a high office in the state and coins were struck on which her name was associated with that of the emperor. In fact it was she and not Jahangir that ruled the empire from this time.

Shahryar
and Shah
Jahan

Nur Jahan's intrigues drive Shah Jahan to revolt—Nur Jahan had a daughter by her former husband whom she affianced to Prince Shahryar, the youngest son of Jahangir, about the time of the departure of Prince Khurram for the Deccan. Up to this period Prince Khurram had been looked upon as the chosen successor to the empire. He was the third son of Jahangir but his brilliant successes in war

had led the emperor to give him preference while he was supported by the powerful influence of Nur Jahan, whose niece (Mumtaz Mahal, daughter of Nur Jahan's brother Asaf Khan) he had married. Nur Jahan, however, now began to fear that it would not be possible for her to gain an ascendancy over an able and intelligent prince like Shah Jahan, and she tried to secure the succession for her own son-in-law Shahryar. This drove Shah Jahan into rebellion. Mahabat Khan, who was the most skilful general of the time, was sent against him, and the prince, after many defeats and disasters, was at last forced to surrender himself to the mercy of his father.

Mumtaz
Mahal.

Mahabat
Khan

Nur Jahan's jealousy turns General Mahabat into a rebel—But now came the turn of Mahabat to rebel. He had awakened the jealousy of Nur Jahan by his influence and success, and the empress was resolved to crush him. Mahabat was summoned to court to answer charges of oppression and embezzlement. The great general saw that his ruin was determined upon and, in order to avert it, he suddenly captured the emperor when the latter was preparing to cross the Jhelam on his way to Kabul (1626). Nur Jahan made an attempt to rescue her husband but failed. She then joined the emperor in his captivity and at last cleverly effected the escape both of herself and her husband. Shortly after, Mahabat joined Shah Jahan in the Deccan.

Capture of
Jahangir.

Advent of the English—It was in the time of Jahangir that the English began their trading operations in India. On the 31st December, 1599, towards the close of the reign of Akbar, Queen Elizabeth

settlements in India in 1616 A D The French formed their first East India Company in 1604 but they did not obtain a firm footing in India till the reign of Aurangzeb grandson of Jahangir These nations gradually established their settlements in various parts of India the most important of which were the Dutch settlement of Chinsura the Danish settlements of Tranqueber and Serampore and the French settlements of Chandernagar and Pondicherry

Their early settlement

Death of Jahangir his character — Jahangir died in 1627 in the sixtieth year of his age He was a great drunkard but he was not devoid of virtues He was good natured and his administration was generally wise and just He continued to a certain extent the liberal policy of Akbar he retained the services of the tried officers of his father abolished certain vexatious duties which had escaped Akbar's reforms forbade the billeting of soldiers on private houses and prohibited mutilation of prisoners In order that no complaint might be kept back from him by any officer he had a cluster of bells hung in his apartment with a chain which could be pulled by any complainant from outside the citadel The polish and magnificence of his court were greatly due to the fine taste of the accomplished Nur Jahan she introduced greater decency into female dresses made improvements in the furniture and is said to have invented the perfume known as *attar*

Jahangir's liberal policy

Nur Jahan's improvements

Shah Jahan's accession ends Nur Jahan's influence — When Jahangir died Asaf Khan (who had been made prime minister after the death of his father) immediately sent for his son in law Shah

Succession quarrels

First charter
of the East
India
Company.

Surat,

Captain
Hawkins,

Sir Thomas
Roe

The Dutch
the French
and the
Danish
Merchant
Companies.

of England granted a charter to a body of English merchants known as the East India Company, to trade with India and the adjoining islands. For some years these merchants confined themselves to the islands of the Indian Archipelago. But they soon, in spite of strenuous opposition from the Portuguese traders, established factories and agencies at Surat and other places in India, and obtained important commercial privileges from Jahangir. In 1608, an English ship-captain named Hawkins came to the court of Jahangir with a letter from King James I of England. He became a great favourite of the emperor, a description of whose court he has left to us. Then in 1615, Sir Thomas Roe arrived as an ambassador from King James and succeeded in getting additional privileges and concessions from the emperor for his countrymen. Sir Thomas has also left a very interesting account of the court of the Great Moghul, from which we may gather a great deal of information about the state of India at this period.

And of other European races—Other nations of Europe also came to trade with the East. The Dutch were the first European nation who broke through the Portuguese monopoly of the Eastern trade. They started several trading companies which were all amalgamated in 1602 into "The Dutch East India Company." They expelled both the Portuguese and the English from the Indian Archipelago and ruled there for a time without a rival. They did not, however, begin their trading operations in the mainland of India till the middle of the seventeenth century. The Danes established their first

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Jahangir's liberal policy

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Succession quarrels

Fate of
Shahryar

Jahan placing his sister Nur Jahan under a temporary restraint Shah Jahan accompanied by Mahabat Khan at once hurried from the Deccan and proclaimed himself emperor at Agra in January 1628. The elder sons of Jahangir, Khusru and Parviz had died during the life time of their father. The only rival of Shah Jahan was Prince Shahryar whose cause Nur Jahan supported. But Shahryar was defeated and put to death and Nur Jahan's influence came to an end.

Ahmad-
nagar

General Khan Jahan rebels and is put down.—The first important event after Shah Jahan's accession was the revolt of his Afghan general Khan Jahan Lodi who joined the king of Ahmadnagar against the Moghuls. Shah Jahan marched to the Deccan at the head of a large army and Khan Jahan was soon defeated and slain (1631).

Shahji
Bhonsla

Shah Jahan annexes Ahmadnagar.—The war with Ahmadnagar continued for sometime more and the kingdom which practically ceased to exist in 1632 was extinguished for ever and annexed to the Moghul empire in 1637. During the last days of the war, a Mahratta chief named Shahji Bhonsla who had distinguished himself in the time of Malik Ambar tried his best to preserve the independence of the kingdom but finding the case hopeless he submitted to the Moghuls and entered the service of Bijapur with the consent of Shah Jahan.

Peace with Bijapur and Golconda.—Bijapur had made common cause with Ahmadnagar in the course of the struggle of the latter with the Moghuls. But peace was made in 1636. The king of Bijapur con-

sented to yield obedience to the Moghul emperor and received in return a share of the kingdom of Ahmadnagar. At an early period of the war the king of Golconda had been forced to agree to pay a regular tribute to Shah Jahan.

Submission of southern kingdoms

Loss of Kandahar — But while the Moghul empire extended its conquests in the Deccan it was finally shorn of its Afghan province of Kandahar. Kandahar was taken by the Persians in 1649 and repeated efforts of the Moghuls to regain it were unsuccessful.

The empire confined within India

Progress of the English in India — The reign of Shah Jahan saw the establishment of the first independent station of the English in India. They bought the site of the city of Madras from the Raja of Chandragiri in 1639 and the foundation of Fort St George was laid there in the following year. They also obtained letters patent from the Moghul emperor granting them freedom of trade in Bengal.

Purchase of Madras

Trade in Bengal.

The illness of Shah Jahan leads to a Struggle for Succession among his sons — Shah Jahan became seriously ill in 1657 and it was believed that his condition was hopeless. At once there began a scramble for the throne among his sons. The result was an inhuman fratricidal war. The emperor had four sons. The eldest Dara was the favourite of his father and always remained with him at Agra to assist him in conducting the business of the state. He was learned and generous but as he openly professed the tenets of Akbar he was looked upon with aversion by all strict Musalmans. The second son Shuja was subadar or viceroy of Bengal. He was a brave man but he freely indulged in excesses of every kind. He was

Shah Jahan's sons

Dara

Shuja

moreover hated by most of the orthodox Musalmans for his attachment to the Persian sect of the Shias. The ablest and the craftiest of all the brothers was Aurangzeb. He had been appointed subadar of the Deccan and was engaged about this time in conquering the kingdoms of Bijapur and Golconda. Mir Jumla, the prime minister of the king of Golconda, had deserted his master and joined him, and the prince's operations against the two kingdoms were so successful that they would have been ere long extinguished like Ahmadnagar, had not Aurangzeb been called away by the news of his father's illness to try his chance for the succession. The youngest son of Shah Jahan was Murad subadar of Gujarat. He was a gallant soldier, but as he was thoughtless and dull in intellect, he simply played into the hands of the wily Aurangzeb.

Aurangzeb wins over the simple minded Murad — Aurangzeb gave Murad to understand that he personally did not care at all for the throne, but he could not bear the idea that the infidel Dara should succeed to the empire. He therefore, proposed to join his forces with those of Murad that he might secure the throne for the latter and then retire to Mecca happy and contented. The simple minded Murad believed in all these professions and placed all his resources at the disposal of Aurangzeb, who had also secured the sympathy of the orthodox Musalmans by proclaiming himself to be a true follower of the Prophet and a staunch defender of Islam which was sure to suffer if Dara succeeded.

Dara repels Shuja, but is defeated by Aurang-

zeb and Murad —Meanwhile Shuja was advancing from Bengal Dara sent his son Sulaiman against him while Raja Yasovanta Sinha of Marwar was sent to oppose the united army of Aurangzeb and Murad Shuja was defeated near Benares and forced to return to his province But the imperial army under Yasovanta was routed at Dharmat near Ujjain by Aurangzeb and Murad Upon this Dara himself marched out at the head of a large army and met his victorious brothers at Samugarh in the vicinity of Agra But Dara was totally defeated and Aurangzeb and Murad entered Agra

Yasovanta
Sinha

Battle of
Dharmat

Aurangzeb's
victory

Battle of
Samugarh

Aurangzeb imprisons his father Shah Jahan and gets rid of Murad —Aurangzeb now tried to conciliate his father who had recovered in the meanwhile But finding it impossible to shake his attachment to Dara he took possession of the citadel and confined the old emperor in his palace Murad was no longer of any use to Aurangzeb One day he invited that simple prince to supper and plied him with drink till he was in a state of helpless intoxication He then cast him into chains and subsequently sent him off as a prisoner to the fort of Gwalior

Fate of
Shah Jahan

*

Aurangzeb assumes the Government —Shortly after Aurangzeb caused himself to be proclaimed emperor under the title of Alamgir or the Conqueror of the World (1658) The reign of Shah Jahan was thus brought to a close

Shah Jahan as a Ruler —Shah Jahan remained in confinement till death carried him away in 1666 On the whole he was a good ruler His treatment of his subjects was generally beneficent and the

Shah Jahan
death

His good
government

empire enjoyed almost undisturbed tranquility and prosperity during his reign. According to Khafi Khan, the contemporary historian, no other Indian prince excelled Shah Jahan in the management of finances and good administration of the country though Akbar was superior to him as a conqueror and law giver. The success of Shah Jahan's government was greatly due to his able and upright minister, Sadullah Allami, who was originally a Hindu.

Sadullah
Allami

Peacock
Throne,

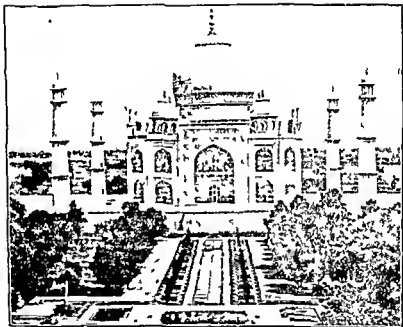
Shah Jahan's magnificence—Shah Jahan was, perhaps, the most magnificent prince that ever ruled in India. The splendour of his court was the wonder of all who saw it. The cost of the celebrated Peacock Throne on which he used to sit was commonly estimated at more than six crores of rupees. But his greatest magnificence was shown in his buildings. The exquisite mausoleum known as the Taj Mahal which he built at Agra over the grave of his beloved queen—Mumtaz Mahal (niece of Nur Jahan), is still regarded as one of the loveliest buildings in the world. The new city which he founded at Delhi far surpassed the old one in elegance and grandeur. Its *Deuani Khas* or Court of Private Audience is a master piece of artistic design, while its *Juma Musjid* or Great Mosque is a work of extraordinary beauty and magnificence. All these costly undertakings were managed with so much economy, that, in spite of the heavy expenses of his court, Shah Jahan was able to leave a vast treasure worth several crores of rupees.

Taj Mahal

Deuani
Khas

Juma
Musjid

Shah
Jahan's
economy.



TAJ MAHAL

Fate of
Mura

where Murad and another son of Dara had already been confined. A few months after, Murad tried to make his escape but was discovered. Feeling that it would not be safe to let him live any longer, Aurangzeb instigated a man to bring a charge of murder against the prince who had while subadar (Viceroy) of Gujarat arbitrarily put his father to death. Murad was at once tried, found guilty and executed. The young son of Murad and the sons of Dara died at Gualior within a short time and it was believed that they were murdered.

Mir Jumla's disastrous expedition to Assam—Firmly seated on his throne, Aurangzeb's next object was to extend his empire. Accordingly he sent Mir Jumla who had been appointed subadar of Bengal in the place of Prince Shuja to conquer Assam. Mir Jumla overran the kingdom and took its capital but the rains set in and pestilence broke out in his camp. He was compelled to retreat and died on his way back to his province worn out with fatigue and hard hip (1663). The death of this powerful officer seemed to give great relief to the suspicious mind of Aurangzeb.

Hindu
Influence in
the Deccan.

The Mahrattas—A new power was rising about this time in the south and making encroachment on the Mughul territories. This was the Mahratta power which was destined in the long run to break down the Mughul empire. Though the Deccan had been subdued by the Muhammadan kingdoms of the south, the Hindus still retained considerable influence there and were often employed in high offices by their rulers. Thus in the Mahratta country the collection of the

revenue remained entirely in the hands of its Hindu inhabitants. There were different grades of these revenue officers each district being in the charge of a *Desam ilhya* who received *sirdesmukhi* or a tenth of the revenue as his due. The *Desamukhyas* used not only to collect revenue but also to fight for their Muhammadan masters in times of war and were some times rewarded with large *jagirs* for their services.

Mahratta
revenue
officers

Sivaji the founder of the Mahratta Power — Shahji Bhonsla the Mahratta officer who tried in vain to revive the Ahmadnagar state in its last days was a *jagiridar* of this description. He had after his failure in Ahmadnagar accepted service under the king of Bijapur who employed him to subjugate the Carnatic and rewarded his success with an extensive *jagir* in that part of the country. Sivaji the founder of the Mahratta power was the second son of this distinguished Mahratta chief.

Sivaji's
father

Sivaji's future career shaped by his early education — Sivaji was born in 1627 a few months before the death of Jahangir. While engaged in the Carnatic Shahji left his hereditary *jagir* of Poona in charge of a Brahman named Dadaji Kondeo to whom was also committed the care of Sivaji. Sivaji was not taught to read and write but he was brought up a zealous Hindu and well trained in horsemanship, hunting and various military exercises. He kept company chiefly with the soldiers of his father and the plundering highlanders of the neighbouring hills. From these associates he early imbibed a love of adventure and as he often accompanied them in their hunting and marauding excursions he soon became

Dadaji
Kondeo

Early life
and train-
ing of Sivaji

off an immense booty. Shortly after he assumed the title of Raja and began to coin money like an independent sovereign. These proceedings naturally incensed Aurangzeb highly and he sent a large army under Ra a Jay Sinha and Diler Khan who pressed Sivaji so hard that he was forced to submit. The Mahratta chief had to give up a large number of forts with the territory attached to them and was allowed to hold his remaining possessions only as a *jagir* under the Moghul emperor.

Submission
of Sivaji

Sivaji then heaped the Moghuls against Bijapur and distinguished himself so much that the emperor invited him to Agra. But the object of Aurangzeb seems to have been not so much to honour as to make him sensible of his own insignificance by a show of the magnificence of the imperial court. When Sivaji arrived he was coldly received and kept under guard. He however contrived to escape and on reaching Raigarh his capital offered to make peace with the Moghuls.

Sivaji in-
vited to
Agra

Aurangzeb's
treachery

Sivaji's power acknowledged by all before his death—Soon he was able to obtain very favourable terms from Aurangzeb a considerable portion of territory was restored to him and his title of Raja was acknowledged by the emperor (1667).

Aurangzeb again tried to entrap him and this led to a renewal of the war in 1670. Sivaji plundered Surat a second time and extended his ravages over a large tract of the Moghul territory. It was on this occasion that he for the first time levied the *chauth* so celebrated in the history of the Mahrattas. It was a blackmail amounting to one-fourth of the revenue,

Sivaji's
successes

Chauth

exacted as a price for exempting the districts that agreed to pay it from plunder

In 1674, Sivaji was solemnly enthroned at Raigarh and from that time he assumed all the pomp and dignity of a powerful sovereign. After extending his conquests and pillage as far as Gujarat in the north and the Carnatic in the south the great Mahratta died in 1680 A. D., and was succeeded by his eldest son Sambhuji.

Sivaji
crowned

His death

Sambhuji

Character and Administration of Sivaji.—That Sivaji was a genius is admitted on all hands. From the son of an ordinary *jagirdar* he rose to be the founder of a powerful independent kingdom in direct opposition to the mighty Moghul empire at the height of its power. His energy, tact, perseverance and military skill were really wonderful. No difficulty could baffle him and no danger could scare him from the pursuit of his plans. He not only rose to power himself but carried his whole race along with him. Some of his acts were no doubt characterised by violence and severity, but he was never wantonly cruel, and his treatment of his subjects was always just and paternal. The virtues of Sivaji excited even the admiration of his enemies. Thus we are told by Khafi Khan that "he made it a rule that wherever his followers went plundering, they should do no harm to the mosques, the Book of God (the *Koran*) or the women of any one."

Sivaji's
character

Though Sivaji could neither read nor write he carried on his administration with admirable skill. It has indeed been said that he was even more successful as an administrator than as a military

Sivaji as an
administra-
tor

Mahratta
system of
administra-
tion

Si
of

Depart-
ments

Navy

Revenue
system

commander His system of administration was more methodical and mature than that of the Moghuls. His Council was formed of eight ministers (*Ashta Pradhan*), the chief of whom was known as the *Peshwa* or *Mukhya Pradhan*, and he laid it down that no important state business would be done without the consent of the Council. While under the Moghuls the administration was mainly left in the hands of military officers Sivaji in order to ensure the welfare of his subjects divided the government into eighteen *karkkanas* and twelve *Mahals*, each under a separate responsible officer. The commander-in-chief (*Senapati*) was a member of the Council, and under him there was a regular chain of officers, from commanders of 5000 downwards who were paid liberally by the government. The cavalry consisted of *Bargirs* and *Siledars*. The former were equipped at the expense of the state, while the latter brought with them their own horses and arms. Besides this well organised army Sivaji had also a very strong navy powerful enough to cope with the fleets of the Sidis or Abyssinians the Portuguese and other Western powers in India.

The whole kingdom was divided into *Prants* the revenue from which was collected by officers appointed by the Crown. According to the ancient custom, two-fifths of the produce of the fields was claimed as the king's share, the payment of which was allowed to be made in money. There was no farming of the revenue and the hand of the central government was perceptible everywhere, no cultivator was allowed to be oppressed, extra cesses were strictly prohibited.

while all frauds against the state were checked with a strong hand. The plunder together with the *chauth* formed one of the principal sources of the revenue and the army had to give up to the state the booty it obtained.

Aurangzeb's bigoted policy turns the Hindus against him—The Mahrattas were not the only Hindus that gave trouble to Aurangzeb. About the close of Sivaji's career, the brave Rapputs, who had contributed so much to the maintenance of the Moghul empire, rose in rebellion. It was the narrow and bigoted policy of Aurangzeb that at last drove these loyal supporters of the imperial throne to take this violent step. It has been seen how, during the fratricidal war for succession, Aurangzeb enlisted the sympathy of all orthodox Musalmans by professing an unflinching faith in Islam. After his accession to the throne he carried the zeal for the Muhammadan faith farther than prudence and good sense would have dictated to him. He began to treat his Hindu subjects very harshly. He forbade the Brahmans of Benares to teach the *Vedas*, prohibited every ostentatious display of unage worship, stopped all fairs on Hindu festivals and destroyed many Hindu temples of great sanctity, including the holy temple of Visvanath at Benares and the magnificent shrine of Kesava at Mathura on the ruins of which he erected mosques. Cart loads of images were sent to Agra where they were treated with every contempt and scorn. He took off one half of the customs paid by the Muhammadans, while those of the Hindus were left undiminished. He further issued a circular order to all governors and

Aurangzeb's folly

His persecution of the Hindus

Destruction of temples.

persons in authority not to confer any office under them on Hindus but on Muhammadans only. These fanatical proceedings naturally alienated the Hindus altogether and gave rise to a spirit of discontent among them. This discontent was brought to a head when in 1679 Aurangzeb reimposed the invidious poll tax *jizya* which had been abolished by Akbar. In vain did the Hindu inhabitants of Delhi besiege the imperial palace with their complaints and clamours. In vain did the Rajput generals entreat the emperor to take the tax off. Aurangzeb remained inexorable.

The Rajputs at last revolted—Shortly before the imposition of the hated tax the emperor had given another cause of offence to the Rajputs. The brave chief Yasovanta Sinha of Jodhpur who had served the emperor so faithfully died at Jamrud at the mouth of the Khyber Pass, leaving a widow and two infant sons. These set out for India without leave or passports. Aurangzeb at once tried to take advantage of their offence to get the children into his power and surrounded their encampment with his troops. Their Rajput followers however succeeded in sending them safe to Jodhpur. But this outrage on the family of one of their nobles served as the spark required for the explosion of Rajput discontent. Nearly the whole nation combined and flew to arms. They found a leader in Raj Sinha Rana of Udaipur (Mewar). This heroic and patriotic chief peremptorily refused to pay the *jizya* and continued a gallant fight against the great Moghul emperor till the latter was glad to grant him a peace on favourable terms.

Reimposition of *jizya*

Harsh treatment of Yasovanta's family

Rana Raj Sinha the Rajput leader

Aurangzeb marches to the Deccan — Aurangzeb had while acting as subadar of his father in the Deccan formed the idea of extending the Moghul empire down to Cape Comorin. Hitherto his attempts to realise this ambitious scheme had not been very successful. So after the conclusion of his treaty with the Rana of Udaipur he collected all the forces of his empire and moved personally to the conquest of Southern India.

Aurangzeb annexes Bijapur and Golconda — The king of Golconda was in alliance with the Marhatta chief Sambhaji who was ravaging the Moghul territories. Aurangzeb made this a ground for invading Golconda and sent his son Shah Alam against it. The commander in chief of Golconda deserted to the Moghuls with the greater part of his army and Shah Alam was easily able to seize and plunder its capital. Having thus crippled the king of Golconda Aurangzeb granted him peace in order that he might turn his undivided attention to the conquest of Bijapur. Immediately after the annexation of Bijapur in 1686 the emperor broke the peace with Golconda on frivolous pretexts and destroyed the kingdom in 1687. Thus fell the last two Muhammadan kingdoms of the Deccan after an independent existence of two hundred years. But their extinction was a political blunder as the co operation of all the Muhammadan powers was absolutely necessary at this juncture to check the progress of the Hindu Revival and avert thereby the fall of the Moghul empire.

Invasion of
Golconda.

Fall of
Bijapur and
Golconda

Its effect

Aurangzeb's temporary success against the Marhattas — After the annexation of Bijapur and Golconda Aurangzeb prepared for the reduction of

Capture of
Sambhuji

Sabu

Raja Ram

the Mahratta country In 1689 Sambhuji was captured by one of his officers and was put to death with barbarous cruelty In the next year Sambhuji's infant son Sivaji II was also taken prisoner Aurangzeb kept the boy in his own palace and gave him the name of *Sabu* or honest man in order to express his contempt for Sivaji and Sambhuji whom he used to call thieves Meanwhile Sambhuji's half brother Raja Ram who had been acting as regent proclaimed himself king and continued the struggle But the Mahrattas were repeatedly defeated and ere long there was scarcely a fort left in their hands

The Mahratta and the Moghul armies contrasted — The Mahratta power seemed to have come to an end But a defeat to the Mahrattas was like a blow given to water which offers no resistance to the stroke and retains no impression of its effect Their army dispersed before a superior force only to unite again as soon as that force was withdrawn or exhausted The hardy Mahratta horsemen were no burden upon the state The simplest fare and the barest equipments were sufficient for them and even these they generally supplied themselves with by plundering the enemy The grand Moghul army on the other hand was at once unwieldy and expensive The cost and trouble of maintaining it always meant an enormous drain upon the imperial resources and every campaign whether it led to defeat or partial success increased the financial embarrassment of the state

The Mahrattas at last forced Aurangzeb to retreat to Ahmadnagar — Aurangzeb had indeed

Mahratta
system of
war

Weakness of
the Moghul
army

ained very little by his successes. Though he had taken almost all the forts of the Mahrattas, the enemy was still far from being crushed, while he found his treasury empty and his troops quite worn out and exhausted. Even these forts he could not retain long. The Mahratta host seemed to gain new strength as the Moghul army decayed. On the death of Raja Ram in 1700 A. D., his eldest son became king under the title of Sivaji III, and Tara Bai, the mother of the young king, was nominated to be regent. The exhortations of this patriotic lady inspired the Mahratta chiefs with fresh vigour. They soon succeeded in recovering a large number of hill forts and pressed the Moghul army so hard from every side that at last Aurangzeb, worn out in body and mind, was forced to retreat with the wreck of his army to Ahmadnagar (1706).

Tara Bai's patriotism.

The Rajputs and Jats defy the Moghul power.—Nor was the state of affairs in Northern India more hopeful. There also the Hindus were showing great activity. The Rajputs were again in arms while, in the immediate neighbourhood of Agra, the Jats set the imperial authority at naught, and founded their capital at Bhartpur out of the plunder of the emperor's camp equipage.

State of Northern India

Jat revolt

Persecution turns the Religious Community of the Sikhs into a Military Commonwealth.—In the Punjab, the Sikhs were gradually rising into a nation. Originally a religious sect, they had, since the time of Nanak, the founder of their religion, lived in peace and silently increased in number for more than a century, till they excited the jealousy and ill-will of

Origin of the Sikhs.

the orthodox Musalmans. A fierce persecution followed, and many barbarous cruelties were committed upon the poor community. One of their Gurus or spiritual heads died in prison and another was tortured to death. The son of the latter, Govinda Singh the tenth Guru from Nanák conceived the idea of converting the Sikhs into a religious and military commonwealth to enable them to retaliate their wrongs upon the Musalmans. Each Sikh was to be a vowed soldier from his birth or initiation, and was always to carry steel in some form about his person. No one was to be allowed to cut his hair, and all were to wear a peculiar dress to distinguish them from the rest of mankind. All distinctions of caste were to be abolished, so that there should be perfect equality among the members. This holy brotherhood was to be known as the *Khalsa* or "liberated." Guru Govinda was killed in 1708, but before his death he had carried out his idea, and the Sikhs soon grew powerful enough to give trouble to their rulers.

The English establish fortified settlements for the protection of their trade.—The disorder of the time was great, and the English, who had settled in the country as peaceful traders, saw that they must be prepared to use force if they wanted to protect themselves and their trade against the oppression and exactions of the Moghuls and Mahrattas. They therefore felt the necessity of having some fortified settlements in their possession. In 1668 Bombay was made over to the East India Company by Charles II, who had received it on his marriage with the Infanta of Portugal as part of her dowry.

Guru
Govinda

Sikh
brotherhood.

Khalsa,

They built a fort there just as they had done at Madras Their next fortified settlement was Calcutta, so long the capital of the British Indian empire

Bombay
fortified.

Calcutta has a history of its own It grew out of three insignificant villages, viz., Sutanuti, Calcutta and Govindapur, each of which was originally merely a cluster of huts In the latter part of the seventeenth century, when the English were thinking of establishing a fortified settlement in Bengal as a safeguard against the oppression of the Moghul officers, a quarrel broke out between the English merchants of Hugh and the Muhammadan governor, which drove the matter to a crisis In the skirmish that followed, the English were successful, but not thinking themselves safe they retreated under their president, Job Charnock to the village of Sutanuti (the northern part of the present Calcutta) which they soon quitted for Hiji, an island at the mouth of the Hugh A treaty having been concluded with the Moghuls they came back to Sutanuti, but the governor renewed his oppression and they abandoned Bengal altogether for sometime Afterwards they came to terms with the Moghul Government and returned to Bengal (1690) but this time they chose Sutanuti instead of Hugh as their headquarters in the province under the advice of Job Charnock who had been attracted by the military and commercial advantages of the site during his first sojourn there In 1696 an event happened which gave the English an opportunity to fortify their new settlement Sobha Singh, a landowner of the district of Burdwan, raised the standard

Early
history of
Calcutta

Job Char-
nock the
founder of
Calcutta.

Rebellion of
Sobha Singh

of rebellion and being joined by Rahim Khan, an Afghan chief from Orissa made himself master of a considerable portion of the country for some time. On account of the consequent insecurity of the time the English applied to and were permitted by the Moghul viceroy to fortify their factory accordingly they began to build a fort at Calcutta which was called Fort William after the name of William III, the then king of England. In 1698 for the sum of sixteen thousand rupees, the English obtained permission from the viceroy to purchase from the existing holders the *zamindari* rights over Calcutta, Sutanuti and Govindapur. This little *zamindari* was destined, as after events showed, to develop into a great empire.

Fort
William,

Zamindar of
Calcutta

Presidency

The three fortified settlements Madras, Bombay and Calcutta, became the head quarters of the British trade in India and were called Presidencies. Each Presidency was placed under a Governor and a Council who supervised the different factories under their jurisdiction.

End of
Aurangzeb

Aurangzeb's death His character and policy. The old emperor entered Ahmadnagar but to die. Cares, anxieties and disappointment had at last worn out his wonderful energy, and he expired on the 21st February, 1707, in the eighty ninth year of his age. Of all the Muslim sovereigns of India Aurangzeb is most admired by the Muhammadans and no one can doubt the ability, courage and talent of this monarch. He tried to live the life of a strict Muslim. He hated all sorts of luxuries and pleasures and shunned most of the vices which some of his



AURANGZEB.

predecessors had freely indulged in His court was thus a striking contrast to that of his gay and profligate contemporary Charles II of England He was an educated man, and personally looked after the minutest details of his administration But while we admire his good qualities, we cannot shut our eyes to the dark side of his character No sophistry can indeed explain away the acts of treachery and assassination by which he came to the throne and the treatment he accorded to his aged father Gratitude he seems to have had none,—not even for those who served him best Hypocrisy and treachery he looked upon as only innocent means of getting rid of difficulties His narrow mind would not allow him to trust any one, not even his own sons He once wrote to his second son Muazzam (Shah Alam), "the art of reigning is so delicate that a king's jealousy should be awakened by his very shadow," and he acted up to this principle as long as he lived His government was, indeed, "a system of continual mistrust" In appointing officers and generals, he always took care to join such colleagues with them as would be checks upon their action and the news of the death of a powerful general often brought immense relief to him

His good
qualities

Dark side
of his
character.

His narrow
mind

Aurangzeb's Narrow-minded Policy brings ruin on his Empire —This want of confidence on the part of the master naturally generated a corresponding faithlessness in the servant, and there never was a prince more ill-served than Aurangzeb While the liberal policy of Akbar converted powerful enemies into staunch friends, the narrow minded action of Aurangzeb turned faithful friends into bitter foes

Akbar and
Aurangzeb
contrasted

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His good qualities.

Dark side of his character.

His narrow mind

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Akbar and Aurangzeb contrasted.

Chief cause
of the fall of
the empire

In his blind fanaticism Aurangzeb failed to see that the vast empire he had succeeded to had been established by its founder Akbar chiefly on the good will of its Hindu population. These Hindus he alienated by his bigoted policy and thus took away the main pillar upon which Moghul rule rested. The natural result was not long in showing itself. Though the Moghul empire reached the zenith of its power during the reign of Aurangzeb that emperor lived to see the commencement of its decline. What the far-sighted wisdom of Akbar had helped to construct the short sighted bigotry of Aurangzeb served to destroy, and within a few years after the death of the latter, the dismemberment of the mighty Moghul empire was complete.

CHAPTER IX

FALL OF THE MOGHULS —INDIA SPLIT UP ONCE MORE

Revival of the Hindus

The Moghul Empire speedily declines after the death of Aurangzeb —Aurangzeb was the last great Moghul emperor. The dismemberment of the Moghul empire began, as we have seen, even during the life time of that monarch. His immediate successors tried hard to prevent the downfall of the empire but in vain. Almost all the causes that had brought about the ruin of the ' Pathan Empire,'—wars and intrigues for succession, rebellions of ambitious governors and generals, devastating invasions from without and up risings of the Hindus within the country,—were again in full operation and within forty years after the death of Aurangzeb the work of destruction was complete.

Causes of
the fall of
the Empire.

Bahadur Shah succeeds Aurangzeb —On the death of Aurangzeb, his eldest surviving son, Shah Alam proclaimed himself emperor under the name of Bahadur Shah. He was opposed by his younger brothers but succeeded in defeating and killing them.

Struggle for
succession

He acknowledges the independence of the Rajputs and defeats the Sikhs —The new emperor had then to settle his relations with the Hindu powers that had troubled the last days of his father. He brought the Rajput war to an end by practically acknowledging

Sikhs under
Banda

the independence of nearly the whole of Rajputana. The Sikhs were ravaging the eastern portions of the Punjab under a leader called Banda. The emperor marched in person against them and drove them to the hills.

Mahratta
houses of
Satara and
Kolhapur.

The Mahratta power, torn by factions cannot trouble the Moghul — Fortunately for him, the Mahrattas were engaged about this time in a civil war. Sahu had been released from the Moghul camp immediately after the death of Aurangzeb, and forthwith the Mahrattas fell into two parties, one acknowledging Sahu as king and the other adhering to Tara Bai's son, Sivaji III. Sahu took up his residence at Satara, while Sivaji held his court at Kolhapur. The feuds between these two parties were carried on with great bitterness and for a time they weakened the cause of the Mahrattas.

Jahandar
Shah

Syad king
makers "

Farrukh
Seyar

The Syad Brothers raise Farrukh Seyar to the throne — Bahadur Shah died in 1712. The usual struggle for succession followed after which the eldest son of Bahadur became king under the title of Jahandar Shah. But his profligacy and cruelty offended everybody. A few months after his accession, Syad Hasan Ali, governor of Behar, and his brother, Syad Abdullah, governor of Allahabad, defeated and killed him and raised Farrukh Seyar, a son of the second son of Bahadur, to the throne.

The Syad Brothers rule the country — Farrukh Seyar appointed Abdullah prime minister and Hasan commander-in-chief and these soon became the real rulers of the state. In vain did Farrukh Seyar try to shake off their domination. All his intrigues

against them failed, and in the end he was deposed and put to death by them in February, 1719

Farrukh
deposed

The Sikhs crushed for a time—Meanwhile the Sikhs had taken advantage of the disorder of the time to recruit their strength Banda had issued from his retreat, defeated the imperial troops and ravaged the country between the Sutlej and the Jumna At length a powerful army was sent against him and he was made prisoner with a large number of his men They were all put to death with horrible cruelty, but they died with unshaken firmness declining every offer to buy life at the cost of religion The Sikhs who were still at large were hunted down like wild beasts, and for a time it seemed that the Sikh power was totally crushed (1715)

Sikh
activity.

Sikh
martyrs.

The Syad Brothers make new Kings—After the deposition of Farrukh Seyar, the Syad brothers set up five princes of the blood as emperors, one after another Four of them died within a short time of their accession The fifth was Muhammad Shah, a grandson of Bahadur Shah Muhammad ascended the throne in September, 1719

Muhammad
Shah

The Nizam's Dominions founded—The Syad "King-makers" continued to rule the empire in Muhammad's name, but they had grown unpopular and soon insurrection broke out everywhere The most formidable was that which occurred in the Deccan, headed by Chingleech Khan, afterwards well known under the titles, Asaf Jah and Nizam-ul Mulk He was offended with the Syads as they would not give him back the viceroyalty of the Deccan, whence he had been removed by them He defeated the armies

Nizam ul-
Mulk.

sent against him by the Syads and laid the foundation of the kingdom, where his descendants known as the Nizams of Haidarabad are still ruling

Fate of the Syads The Syad Brothers overthrown — Hasan Ali marched in person against the rebellious chief but on his way he was assassinated at the instigation of the Emperor who was thus freed from his control Syad Abdullah tried to set up another emperor but he also was soon defeated and killed

Chauth of the Deccan. The Mahratta Power consolidated by Balaji Visvanath the first Peshwa — But the Moghul empire was tottering to its fall and soon fell a prey to the attacks of its ever watchful enemies the Mahrattas For some time past the Mahrattas under Sahu had been steadily growing in strength and in 1717 they had obtained from Syad Hasan Ali a grant of the *chauth* and *sirdesmukhi* of the whole of the Deccan The consolidation of Sahu's power was mainly due to the ability of a Konkan Brahman named Balaji Visvanath who was the *Peshwa* or chief minister of Sahu Balaji not only raised the office of Peshwa to be of paramount authority in the Mahratta state but also made it hereditary in his family He is therefore known in history as the first Peshwa

Baji Rao's ambition Baji Rao, the second Peshwa, carries the Mahratta power to Hindusthan — Balaji died in 1720 and was succeeded in his office by his son Baji Rao the ablest of the Peshwas Baji Rao marked the weakness of the central government at Delhi and was convinced that a successful blow at it would be the first step towards bringing down the Moghul rule and establish-

ing the Mahratta supremacy in its place. He accordingly crossed the Narbada and carried his ravages to the very gates of Delhi. The emperor, Muhammad Shah, in his distress, requested Nizam ul-Mulk to come to his relief. But when that chief came he was reduced to such straits by Bajī Rao that he was forced to sign a convention by which he engaged to cede to the Mahrattas the province of Malwa, together with the territory near it between the Narbada and the Chambal (1738).

Mahratta
invasion of
Hindusthan

As a further step towards the realisation of his scheme of establishing a Mahratta empire on the ruins of the Moghul, Bajī Rao and his colleagues conceived the idea of creating a confederacy of Mahratta chiefs to keep in check the different centres of Muhammadan power all over the country. Pursuant to this policy, the Mahratta Government placed in each such centre a powerful general, who ruled as a semi-independent chief, collecting *chauth* from the territories under his jurisdiction and overawing the Muhammadan states in the neighbourhood. Thus were established Raghujī Bhonsla in Berar, Ranajī Sindbia and Malhar Rao Holkar in Malwa, and Senapati Dabhare in Gujarat, the last of whom was afterwards supplanted by his assistant Pilajī Gaekwar. Thus originated the four chief Mahratta houses, viz., the Bhonsla of Nagpur, the Sindhua of Gwalior, the Holkar of Indore and the Gaekwar of Baroda. All these chiefs had at that time to look upon the Peshwa as their head, who had been entrusted by Maharaja Sahu with the entire administration of the Mahratta affairs.

Mahratta
confederacy

Origin of the
leading
Mahratta
states

Nadir Shah's Invasion gives the death blow to the Moghul Empire—The empire was now reduced to that state of decay which always invites a foreign invasion and at the close of the year 1738 a terrible invader appeared. This was Nadir Shah once a freebooter now king of Persia and Afghanistan. Nadir easily defeated the imperial troops that opposed his march and the vanquished emperor threw himself on the mercy of the invader who then entered Delhi and took up his quarters in the imperial palace. On the second day of the occupation of the city a false report was spread that the Persian monarch was dead and forthwith the inhabitants of Delhi rose against his troops and killed a large number of them. In his wrath Nadir ordered a general massacre and for several hours men women and children were butchered in a most horrible manner. The royal treasury was then plundered and vast sums of money were extorted from the nobles and others. At last after a residence of fifty-eight days Nadir marched homeward carrying with him an immense booty worth many crores of rupees (1739). He took away among other things the celebrated Peacock Throne of Shah Jahan and the famous diamond *Koh-i-noor*. But before he left Delhi he reinstated Muhammad Shah on the throne making a treaty with him by which all the country west of the Indus was ceded to the Persians.

India split up once more—Thus terrible explosion left the throne of Delhi weaker than ever and the dismemberment of the Moghul empire was presently complete. Though some of the provincial governors still yielded a nominal obedience to the

Nadir at
Delhi

Sack and
savage

Peacock
Throne and
Koh-i-noor

Fall of the
Empire

emperor his actual sovereignty did not extend beyond a few miles round his capital. The Moghul dynasty had in fact accomplished the cycle of its existence and the country once more presented a spectacle of chaos and disorder, amidst which were seen numerous powers, both great and small, struggling hard for existence or supremacy. These powers belonged to various races, Hindu, Muhammadan and Christian.

The Revival of the Hindus—Of these the Hindus at first showed the greatest activity, so much so that it seemed as if the sceptre of India was about to pass into their hands again.

The princes of Rajputana had ceased to be the vassals of the Delhi emperor. The Jats of Bharatpur were

The
Rajputs

already in possession of a portion of the Suba of Agra.

The Jats

In the extreme north the Gurkhas were overcoming the Buddhist inhabitants of Nepal. In the north

The
Gurkhas

west the Sikhs again raised their heads. They divided themselves into small bands or fraternities called *misls* or 'equals', and often made plundering raids

The Sikhs.

into different parts of the Punjab directing their attacks mainly on the Musalmans. Each of the *misls* contained about ten thousand men and was

Mis ls

led by a distinguished *sardar* or chief. The principal Sikh chiefs of the present day including the Maharajas of Patiala and Kapurthala trace their descent from the leaders of these *misls*.

In Southern India, the Hindu kingdom of Mysore was steadily growing powerful. From the end of the fourteenth to the middle of the eighteenth century, this kingdom was in the hands of the Yadavas who

Mysore.

The
Yadavas

ruled first as feudatories of the kings of Vijayanagar and afterwards as independent sovereigns with Serungapatam as their capital. After the extinction of the old family, Krishna Ray, a representative of a distant branch of the royal family, was installed as king about 1734, but the real ruler was Nanja Raja his minister, who took into his service a young Muhammadan, named Hyder Ali, who soon rose to be the commander-in-chief. Hyder not only successfully repulsed Mahratta attacks on the kingdom, but also increased its power by annexing some small states around it.

But the greatest of all the Hindu powers of the period was, of course, the Mahratta. The whole of this power was now practically wielded by the Peshwas, the descendants of Sivaji, both at Satara and Kolhapur, having but little influence left to them. The great Mahratta confederacy was as yet unbroken, and the different chiefs in spite of their mutual jealousies and animosities, still looked upon the Peshwa as their leader.

The Muhammadan powers that arose on the dismemberment of the Moghul Empire — Of the Muhammadan states that practically became independent during the decline of the Moghul empire one of the earliest and the greatest was that founded by Nizam ul Mulk in the Deccan with Haidarabad as its capital. Its power rivalled that of the Mahrattas though it had often to acknowledge its inferiority in its contest with the latter. Another important Muhammadan state in the Deccan which was destined to play a prominent part in the history of this period, was that

Hyder Ali

The
Mahrattas

Haidarabad.

Arcot.

of Arcot in the Carnatic Its Nawab was nominally subordinate to the Nizam of Haidarabad but was always striving to make himself independent In Northern India, all the provinces beyond the Indus had been annexed to Persia To the north-east of Delhi, a tribe of Afghans, called the Rohillas, was rapidly rising into importance in the tract, now called after them, Rohulkhanda Oudh was now ruled by a dynasty, founded by a Persian adventurer called Sadat Ali Khan, who having risen to be governor of Oudh, made himself practically independent, and died in 1739 Though the Suba of Bengal, which comprised the provinces of Bengal, Behar and Orissa, still continued to pay at least a nominal revenue, the titular emperor had long ceased to exercise any effective control over it Even of this revenue he was soon deprived, for Ali Verdi Khan, who made himself master of the Suba in 1740, stopped its payment some time after his usurpation

The
PersiansThe
Rohillas

Oudh

Sadat Ali
Khan

Bengal

Ali Verdi
Khan

The English and the French rising into importance—Besides the Hindu and the Muhammadan, there were also two Christian powers, which, though scarcely noticed at the time, were soon to become very important factors in Indian politics These were the English and the French Other European powers, the Portuguese, the Dutch and the Danes, had by this time lost all influence, though they still held some small settlements The monopoly of the Indian foreign trade was, therefore, now almost entirely shared between the English and the French, whose activity was further sharpened by the bitter rivalry that existed between the two nations The acquisi-

The English.

tion of territory and establishment of fortified settlements at Madras Bombay and Calcutta had led to the security, and increased the prosperity, of the English trade in India. The French too had their settlements both on the Madras and the Bombay coasts of Southern India and in Bengal. Pondicherry was their head-quarters and there the President and General Commandant of the French possessions in India resided and looked after the affairs of the French East India Company. In 1742 a very able and far-sighted man called Duplex was appointed to this responsible office.

The French

Duplex

CHAPTER X.

STRUGGLE FOR THE EMPIRE

Foundation of the British Empire in India

The Mahrattas occupy the first place among the various powers — The old story repeated itself. The various powers that rose on the wreck of the Moghul empire entered into a long and bloody strife till the fittest survived and succeeded in establishing an empire again. At first the Mahrattas appeared to have the greatest chance of success. Bajji Rao died in 1740 but his son and successor, Balaji Bajji Rao, was equally ambitious. On the death of Maharaja Sahu in 1748, Balaji removed to Poona which, from this time, practically became the capital of the Maharatta confederacy. Here he began to mature his plans of conquest and aggrandisement. Meanwhile Raghuji Bhonsla the chief of Berar, had carried the Mahratta terror into the fertile plains of Bengal. The terrible atrocities committed by his plundering hordes (known as the *Bargis*) were remembered by the inhabitants with horror for generations and are still referred to in some of the nursery rhymes of the province. Unable to check their depredations, Nawab Ali Verdu Khan was at last compelled to cede Orissa to Raghuji, and to promise to pay him twelve lakhs of rupees as the *chauth* of Bengal (1751).

Balaji Bajji
Rao, the
third
Peshwa

Mahratta
invasions of
Bengal

Cession of
Orissa

The year 1748 — The year 1748, which witnessed

Death of
Sahu

First inva-
sion of
Battle of Sir-
hind

Ahmad
Shah,

Death of
Muhammad
Shah and
Nizam ul-
Mulk

the death of Maharaja Sahu, is a memorable year in Indian history in several other ways. In the beginning of this year another great invader from the north west appeared in the Moghul territory. This was Ahmad Shah the chief of the Abdali or Durani Afghans. Ahmad had been an officer of Nadir Shah, but when that monarch was assassinated by some Persian chiefs, he declared himself king at Kandahar and soon extended his conquest as far as the Sutlej. He was, however, successfully opposed at Sirhind by a Moghul army led by Prince Ahmad, the heir apparent of Muhammad Shah and was compelled to retire. Within a month after this victory, Muhammad Shah died and was succeeded by Ahmad (April 1748). During the same year the old Nizam ul Mulk of Hyderabad also died and at once troubles arose in the Deccan, which were attended with very important political consequences.

Dupleix forms the idea of founding a French Empire in India—These troubles were principally due to the interference of the French governor Dupleix, whose ambition had been roused by a series of events, that had taken place during the last five years. The English and the French had been at war in Europe since 1744, and in 1746 a French fleet arrived at the Carnatic coast and captured Madras from the English. Anwaruddin Nawab of Arcot, was jealous of the French aggrandisement and sent about ten thousand men to take Madras from them. But Dupleix resisted, and, to the surprise of all, the Nawab's troops were totally routed by a small French force. Peace was, however, established in Europe

First
Carnatic
War

between France and England in 1748 by the treaty of Aix la Chapelle and Madras was restored to the English when the news reached this country. But the war was very useful to the French in India. It made their name great in Southern India and at the same time taught them the important lesson that a large Indian army could be routed by a handful of Europeans. It had also brought to Pondicherry a considerable force from France which was commanded by a very able and enterprising officer called Bussy. All these circumstances favoured the ambitious views of Dupleix who about this time conceived the grand idea of founding a French empire in India.

Importance
of the war

Bussy

Dupleix tries to place his nominees on the thrones of Haidarabad and Arcot—On the death of Nizam ul Mulk the subadarsnip of the Deccan was seized by his second son Nazir Jung. But Nazir found a rival in his nephew Muzaffar Jung who produced a will of his grand father the late Subadar nominating him as his successor. Muzaffar entered into a league with another ambitious man named Chand Saheb who was son in law of a previous Nawab of Arcot and who now aspired to its throne. The two aspirants wrote to Dupleix who promptly sent a force to assist them. The combined forces of Muzaffar Chand and the French then marched against Anwaruddin the Nawab of Arcot who was defeated and killed. Muzaffar Jung now proclaimed himself Subadar of the Deccan and appointed Chand Saheb Nawab of the Carnatic.

Revolutions
at
Haidarabad
and Arcot

Muzaffar
Jung and
Chand
Saheb

The English take up the cause of the opposite party—Muhammad Ali son of Anwaruddin fled to

Muhammad
Ali

Second
Carnatic
War

Trichinopoly and applied to the English for help against the usurper of his father's throne. The English alarmed at the ascendancy that the French had been acquiring in the Carnatic, took up the cause of the fugitive chief and also assisted Nazir Jung against Muzaffar. Chand Saheb and his allies were defeated. Muzaffar was taken prisoner, and Nazir proclaimed Muhammad Ali Nawab of the Carnatic.

Dupleix triumphs.—But Nazir was soon assassinated by a turbulent Pathan noble. Muzaffar was then released and installed as Nizam, and Chand Saheb again became Nawab of Arcot (1750). The French triumph was complete. Even though Muzaffar was murdered in the beginning of the next year, they raised his uncle Salahat Jung, another son of Nizam ul Mulk, to the throne, and thus managed to retain their influence.

Salahat
Jung

Bad condi-
tion of the
English

Clive spoils the Frenchman's game.—The case of the English seemed hopeless. They had lost any reputation they had ever acquired among the Indians, while their *portege*, Muhammad Ali, had been driven out of Arcot and had taken refuge in Trichinopoly, where he was closely besieged by his rival Chand Saheb. In this extremity they were saved by the wonderful military genius of one of their young officers. This daring hero, whose name was Robert Clive, had come to Madras as a writer in the service of the East India Company, but had, as soon as the fighting with the French began, exchanged the pen for the sword. He had already distinguished himself by his boldness and intrepidity, and he now proposed to create a diversion in favour of Muhammad Ali.

Early career
of Clive.

by capturing Arcot, where there was but a small garrison left for defence. His proposal was accepted, and with only 500 men, "the heaven-born general" marched from Madras through thunder, lightning and rain, seized the fort of Arcot, and then held it for fifty days against 10,000 men that were sent by Chand Saheb to expel him (1751). This astonishing feat at once spread the fame of British valour far and wide and more than recovered whatever reputation the English had lost.

Siege of
Arcot.

The French lose the Carnatic—After this, Clive, joined by fresh troops from the English and the Mahrattas, marched out, and twice defeated the enemy. The besiegers of Trichinopoly were soon themselves besieged and compelled to surrender. Chand Saheb fell into the hands of the Mahrattas and was put to death (1752). Muhammad Ali was triumphantly placed on his father's throne and the French lost all influence in the Carnatic.

The British
helped by the
Mahrattas

Defeat and
death of
Chand
Saheb

Dupleix recalled—Dupleix tried his best to retrieve his cause but the French Government at home did not support him. In 1754, he was recalled and returned to France a ruined man. He had spent life and fortune in the furtherance of his country's glory and prosperity, and he was repaid with ingratitude and neglect.

Fate of
Dupleix.

The three powers of Southern India in the middle of the Eighteenth Century—The French, however, still exercised considerable power in the Nizam's Dominions through their general Bussy, who remained with a French contingent at the court of Salabat Jung. The revenue of the Northern Circars was

Political
condition of
the Deccan

assigned by the Nizam for the maintenance of Bussy's troops. Thus about the middle of the eighteenth century, the sovereignty of the Deccan was practically divided among three great powers, the Mahrattas, the English and the French. Of these the first two soon became the arbiters of the fate of Northern India also, while the third steadily declined.

Second
invasion of
Ahmad
Shah

Alamgir II

The miserable condition of Delhi—Meanwhile the condition of the nominal emperor at Delhi had gone from bad to worse. The Rohillas had become formidable and carried their arms as far as Allahabad. The Mahrattas had to be called in to the emperor's aid before they could be subdued. In 1751 Ahmad Shah Abdali again invaded the Punjab and compelled the emperor, Ahmad Shah, to cede it to him. To crown all, the emperor himself was deposed and blinded in 1754 by his Vazir, Ghaziuddin, who then raised a son of Jahandar Shah to the throne under the title of Alamgir II.

Seven Years'
War

Nawab

The year 1756—The political sky of India looked serene at the close of the year 1754, but in less than two years it was again overcast with clouds. The year 1756 witnessed very important events—events that led to those final struggles which decided for the last time the fate of India. In this year broke out the famous war known in English history as the Seven Years' War, in which Great Britain and France took part as allies of contending parties, and which in the end stamped out the French influence from India and America. Ali Verdi Khan, Nawab of Bengal, died in the same year, and was succeeded by his young and foolish grandson Sirajuddaula who immediately

began to quarrel with the English, and thus paved the way for their conquest of Bengal. The same year also witnessed another invasion of India by Ahmad Shah Abdah, who had been provoked by the treacherous seizure of Lahore by Ghaziuddin, the Vazir at Delhi. This time the terrible invader occupied Delhi, and once more the Moghul capital became a scene of rapine, violence and slaughter. The inoffensive votaries in the holy city of Muttra were next butchered. But shortly after, disease among his soldiers compelled the invader to return home.

Third
invasion of
Ahmad
Shah

The Mahratta power extended to the Punjab — No sooner had the Afghan invader turned his back, than Ghaziuddin called in the aid of the Mahrattas. The latter were now in greater power than ever. They had not only made the Nizam feel the power of their arms but had brought by this time the whole province of Gujarat also under subjection and levied contributions on the Rajput states. On receiving the application from Ghaziuddin Raghoba, brother of the Peshwa Balaji Bajirao, at once proceeded to support the Vazir, and occupied Delhi. He then marched to the Punjab which Ahmad Shah had left in charge of his son Timur. Timur was expelled and the whole province fell into the hands of the Mahratta general (1758).

Mahrattas
at Delhi and
in the
Punjab

The Mahrattas hope to seize the Sovereignty of India — The Mahrattas were exultant. Nearly the whole of Western India from the Himalayas down to the southern extremity of the Deccan now acknowledged their sway. Most of the native princes in other parts of the country had felt and dreaded

Extent of
the
Mahratta
Dominions

Mahratta
power

their power Their army was decidedly superior to any other Indian army of the time, while their entire confederacy still followed the lead of one man They might now well hope that the sovereignty of the whole of India would presently fall into their grasp

But the choice of God falls upon the British — But this was not to be. The wretched state of India sorely needed the firm rule of a powerful European nation, which alone could save the country at this time by putting an end to the bloody wars and fearful lawlessness that had long been eating into its vitals. The want of a strong central government had demoralised all the Indian races, and none of them possessed that moral force which is necessary for wielding an empire. The Asiatic invaders as the Persians and the Afghans, were equally bad, if not worse. So God ordained that a strong European nation should be our rulers, and the choice fell upon the English, the fittest and the most powerful of all European races in India.

How the foundation of the British Indian Empire was laid — Three distinct, but equally important, events contributed to build up the foundation of the British Indian Empire, the first stone of which may be said to have been laid at the siege of Arcot. These were the conquest of Bengal by the English, their overthrow of the French power in India, and the crushing defeat of the Mahrattas by the Afghans at the battle of Pampat.

Sirajuddaula quarrels with the English — Sirajuddaula, the young Nawab of Bengal, was angry with the English at Calcutta, because they had harboured a man who had escaped from his vengeance

British
rule—a
necessity

Three steps
to British
rule

He found a further cause of offence, when they began to strengthen their fort in order to provide against the impending war with the French. He called upon the Governor of Calcutta to demolish the new works. The Governor replied that no new defence had been attempted but only old ones were being repaired. The reply did not satisfy the Nawab, and, in June 1756, he marched upon Calcutta with a large army. Many of the English, including the Governor, escaped down the river. Those who remained surrendered after a brave struggle.

Calcutta
captured

The English prisoners were 140 in number. The Nawab promised that no harm should be done to them. But his careless officers in order to secure them for the night, are said to have thrust them all into the 'Black Hole' or military prison of Fort William. The room was only eighteen feet square with two small windows, while the night was one of the hottest in the whole year. The result was awful. When the door was opened next morning only 23 persons are said to have been found alive.

"Black
Hole
tragedy

When the news of the disaster reached the British authorities in Madras, they at once sent an army and a fleet to Bengal. The army was commanded by Clive, and the fleet was under Admiral Watson. They reached the Hughli in December, and retook Calcutta in the beginning of the next year (1757). Sirajudaula was soon glad to come to terms, and the English were allowed to resume their old position.

Calcutta
recovered.

The Battle of Plassey — The peace between the Nawab and the English did not last long. The Nawab had disgusted not only the English, but even

Consp racy
against
Sirajuddaula

his own grantees. A conspiracy was set on foot by the leading men of Bengal to depose Sirajuddaula and make his general Mir Jafar Nawab instead. Clive joined in the plot and boldly marched out at the head of a handful of men to meet the vast army which the Nawab had assembled at Plassey. The two forces met on the 23rd June 1757. Mir Madan, the most trusted general of Sirajuddaula, charged the English guns with his horsemen but he was killed and disorder began to spread through the Nawab's ranks. The Nawab was alarmed and quitted the field of battle ordering his troops to retire. Clive advanced and won the day with the loss of only 22 killed and 50 wounded. Mir Jafar who had been watching the fight with his men from a distance without taking any part in it now joined Clive and was saluted by him as Nawab of Bengal, Behar and Orissa. Sirajuddaula was taken prisoner a few days after his flight and cruelly put to death by Mir Jafar's son Miran.

Mir Jafar
made
Nawab

Plassey makes the English the real masters of Bengal.—The battle of Plassey decided the fate of Bengal. Henceforth the English were the real rulers of the province and made and unmade its Nawab according to their pleasure. Mir Jafar had to pay enormous sums as the price of his elevation. He also granted to the East India Company the zamindaris or land-owners' rights over the lands near Calcutta now known as the District of the Twenty-four Parganas. Clive who was made Governor of all the Company's settlements in Bengal in 1758 protected the Nawab against his enemies and virtually directed

The English
as Nawab
makers

Twenty four
Parganas

Clive
Governor of
Bengal

the affairs of the whole Suba. But on Clive's return to England in 1760 the Council of Calcutta found it expedient and profitable to depose Mir Jafar and set up his son-in-law Mir Kasim as Nawab. In return for this Mir Kasim paid large sums of money to private individuals and made over the revenues of the districts of Burdwan, Midnapur and Chittagong to the Company (1761).

New Nawab,
Mir Kasim

The English stamp out the French power from India—Meanwhile the English had been carrying on a very successful war against the French. The French were defeated everywhere. A month before the battle of Plassey Clive and Watson captured the French settlement of Chandernagar in Bengal. Next year however the French Government sent an army to Pondicherry under the command of a distinguished officer named Count de Lally who was made Governor or General of the French possessions in India. Lally had some success at first but his haughty temper made him very unpopular and he was not well supported by those who should have seconded his efforts. He also took the impolitic step of recalling Bussy from the Nizam's Dominions in spite of the strong protests of that able and experienced officer. As soon as Bussy left the province the French lost all their influence there while from Bengal Clive sent an expedition under Colonel Forde which drove them out of the Northern Circars. In January, 1760, Lally was defeated at the battle of Wandiwash by Sir Eyre Coote and Bussy was taken prisoner. Exactly a year later Pondicherry surrendered to the English and the French power in India was crushed for ever.

Capture of
Chander-
nagar

Third
Carnatic
War

Count de
Lally

Battle of
Wandiwash

Pondicherry
captured.

Fourth
invasion of
Ahmad
Shah

Ahmad Shah Abdali again invades India — The same year (1761) which saw the final overthrow of the French in India witnessed also a crushing defeat of the other rival of the English, viz, the Mahrattas. The news of the conquest of the Punjab and the expulsion of the Afghans from that province by the Mahrattas had naturally kindled the wrath of Ahmad Shah Abdali and he again appeared in India with a mighty host in 1759. To meet him, the Mahrattas assembled the largest army they had ever taken the field with, and placed it under the command of Sadasheo Bhao, the Peshwa's cousin. The Afghan invader, on his part allied himself with the Rohillas and the Nawab of Oudh. The struggle was to be final, it was to decide whether the Hindus were destined to set up an Empire again.

Third Battle
of Panipat

And crushes the Mahrattas at Panipat — The two armies met on the ever memorable field of Panipat in January, 1761. The battle raged from dawn till two in the afternoon. At first the Mahrattas carried all before them. But Ahmad Shah rallied the fugitives, and advanced with his Afghans, meanwhile directing a division on his left to march round the enemy's flank and attack them in the rear. This movement decided the day. The whole Mahratta army broke and fled hotly pursued by the Afghans. No quarter was shown, and the carnage was terrible. It is said that the whole number of the slain amounted to nearly two lakhs. Almost all the great Mahratta chiefs were either killed or wounded in the action.

Panipat destroys the hopes of Mahratta supremacy — The Peshwa, Balaji Baji Rao died of a

broken heart when the terrible news reached him
The prestige of his family was gone The formidable
unity of the Mahrattas under one head was destroyed
The broken Mahratta confederacy might still wield
power and gain victories but their hope of establish-
ing supremacy was annihilated The establishment
of an empire in India by the only remaining great
power, viz, the English, was therefore now a foregone
conclusion

Effect of th
battle

CHAPTER XI

STATE OF THE COUNTRY FROM THE CONQUEST OF BABAR TO THE ASCENDENCY OF THE BRITISH

Relation between the Hindu and the Muhammadan communities under Moghul Rule — Nearly two centuries and a half passed between the accession of Babar to the throne of Delhi and the ascendancy of the English Power in India. This was as has been seen one of the most eventful periods in the political history of India. But the interval did not witness many important changes in the social condition of the people. The inevitable changes which followed the contact of the Hindu and the Muhammadan social systems after the Musalman conquest became however more pronounced and definite during this period. The Hindus who lived in the vicinity of the centres of Muhammadan influence and power were naturally affected to a certain extent in their dress, language and manners by the conquerors. The Musalmans in their turn borrowed a number of customs from their Hindu subjects and neighbours. Thus there seemed to be a tendency towards a sort of gradual amalgamation between the two races. The liberal and conciliatory policy of Akbar towards the Hindus helped on this tendency. But the short sighted and bigoted policy of Aurangzeb upset the whole work of his great grandfather and instead of that friendly feeling which

Social
changes

Tendency
towards
amalgama-
tion

Helped on
by Akbar

Counter-
acted by
Aurangzeb

had been drawing the two races together so long there sprang up a bitter hatred between them, which put an end to all hopes of unification

The Administration of the country under the Moghuls —The system of administration was much improved by Sher Shah and Akbar. A description of the administration of Akbar has already been given which will enable one to form an idea of what the Moghul government was like. Each of the imperial provinces was under a *Subadar* or *Nawab*, who was helped by various subordinate officers, the chief among whom was the *Dewan*. The *Dewan* superintended the collection of revenue, and tried all cases relating to revenue and title to land. The *Subadar*, as the *Nazim* or military governor and supreme magistrate, commanded the army and looked after criminal justice. So long as he acknowledged the supremacy of the emperor and regularly paid the revenue to the imperial exchequer, he was seldom interfered with and ruled almost like an independent prince. The office often descended from father to son.

Duties and Powers of the Subadar and the Dewan

As in the 'Pathan' period the Hindus were largely employed in carrying on both civil and military administration. The success of the Moghul government was indeed largely due to the administrative genius of the Hindus. Not to speak of Akbar, even the bigoted Aurangzeb found the services of Hindu officials indispensable. It was the genius of Todar Mall that carried out the financial reforms of Akbar. The success of Shah Jahan's civil administration, as stated before, was mainly due to his prime minister, who was a converted Hindu.

Employment of Hindu officers

The Jagirdars and Zamindars — From the earliest times, there had been a custom in India of granting assignments from the crown lands, not only for religious and 'charitable purposes, but also for the maintenance of meritorious servants and favourites. Grants of the latter kind were known as *jagirs* during the Muhammadan rule. These *jagirs* were hereditary, and the *Jagirdar* used to enjoy all the revenue of his *jagir*, subject to the payment of his dues to the king. The Muhammadan sovereigns often remunerated their military officers with the grant of *jagirs* instead of any fixed pay. The result was a continual decrease of the crown lands, and consequently of the imperial revenue. Akbar, therefore, condemned the system, and adopted, as we have seen, the practice of paying his officers in money. But his successors found themselves unable to enforce this rule, and the increase of Jagirdars continued unabated. Besides the Jagirdars there was another important body of landholders known as *Zamindars*. This term was used by the Muhammadans rather loosely, and included not only the hereditary collectors of revenue, but also the old hereditary princes that owed only a financial allegiance to the emperor.

Within their own jurisdiction the Jagirdars and the Zamindars practically exercised almost all the powers of the sovereign. They preserved peace and order, heard and decided cases, and enforced obedience to their decrees and sentences. They often fought amongst themselves, robbed one another whenever they could, and conciliated the Subadar, if necessary, by gifts or payments of additional revenue.

Origin of
Jagirdars

and of
Zamindars

Their
powers.

The Muhammadans develop Historical Literature—Indian literature owes a great deal to the Muhammadans. The Muhammadans brought with them the practice of writing history—a subject in which Hindu literature had always been very poor. Numerous histories were written by them and even some of the Musalman sovereigns themselves left records of their reign. The most celebrated historians that flourished during this period were Firishta, Ahul Fazl and Khafi Khan. Firishta who lived in the time of Akbar wrote a history of Hindusthan up to the reign of that emperor. Abul Fazl the court historian of Akbar has left in his *Akbar Namah* and *Ain-i Akbari* an invaluable account of his master's life and government. Khafi Khan flourished during the time of Aurangzeb and wrote a history of the times. Khafi Khan's real name was Muhammad Hashim but as Aurangzeb had prohibited the writing of history the author wrote his work in secret and thus won the name of *Khafi* or the concealed. Another great historian Mir Gholam Husain Khan was born in the latter part of this period and subsequently wrote his famous work *Siyar ul Mutakherin* which is still regarded as a great authority for the history of India from the decline of the Moghul empire to the rise of English power.

Firishta

Abul Fazl

Khafi Khan

Gholam
Husain's
Siyar ul
Mutakherin

The Vernacular Literature—The Vernacular literature which had received a great impetus from the religious revival of the fifteenth and the sixteenth centuries, received a further development during this period. The poetical writings of Krittibas Mukundaram Kasidas, Bharatchandra and Ram

Bengali

Mahratti,

prasad were great acquisitions to Bengali literature, while the Mahratti poetry reached its highest flight in the spiritual compositions of Tukaram. The translations and religious poems of Tulsidas, who lived in the reign of Akbar, are among the most popular works in Hindi literature.

Hindi

Moghul
architecture

Arts—The introduction of Muhammadan art was a distinct gain to the country. The Muhammadans were great builders, and the splendid architecture of this period still attracts travellers from all parts of the world. Akbar's red stone fort at Agra, his tomb at Sikandra, the palace at Fatehpur Sikri, the immutable *Taj* and other magnificent edifices erected by Shah Jahan at Delhi and Agra, are some of the living testimonies of the exquisite taste and wonderful skill of the Moghul architects. The art of music, too, was cultivated by the Musalmans with admirable zeal and many improvements in this delightful art came from them.

Music

Trade and Commerce—Trade was hampered to a certain extent by the exactions of local officers, and the general insecurity of the times, especially during the troublesome period that witnessed the dismemberment of the Moghul empire. The establishment of the English, the Dutch and the French East India Companies, however, gave a great impulse to the direct commercial intercourse between India and Europe that had been begun by the Portuguese at the end of the fifteenth century.

Foreign
trade

Foreign accounts of Moghul India—A contemporary picture of the Moghul period has been presented to us by some noted Europeans who visited India

during the time. Among these, Captain Hawkins and Sir Thomas Roe have already been referred to. Hawkins became a boon companion of the Emperor Jahangir, of whose private character he has given an account. Among other things his narrative refers to the corruption among officials and dangers of travelling in those days. Roe gives a delightful description of the court and the character of the Moghul emperor as well as of the general state of the country. He speaks of Jahangir as a very gracious monarch and not devoid of good sense. Though addicted to drinking the emperor always observed great strictness in public. The court was very magnificent and the nobles were very courteous, though as a class they were rather unprincipled. The administration of the country was generally good, though there were governors who were exacting and oppressive and there were several towns which were in a state of decay and desertion. Manual arts were in a flourishing condition and exhibited great skill and workmanship. There were a great many Europeans in the country. They were treated kindly and allowed to worship freely. Both Hawkins and Roe allude to the decline of the military spirit among the Moghuls and remark that brave soldiers could only be found among Rajputs and Pathans. The language of the Court was Persian, though the people generally spoke Urdu.

Hawkins's
account.Roe's
account

Court

Administra-
tion.Arts.
Europeans.

Language.

Among those European travellers who visited India during the last half of the seventeenth century, the names of Bernier and Tavernier are well known. Both of them were Frenchmen. Bernier reached

Bernier's account	India when the whole country was being convulsed by the fratricidal wars amongst the sons of Shah Jahan. He was afterwards employed as a Physician to the Great Moghul and thus had an ample opportunity of studying the character of the Moghul court.
Civil wars.	Bernier's narrative gives a vivid description of the civil wars and of the characters of the princes, dwelling specially on the tact and policy of Aurangzeb both during the wars and after he had established himself in power. In the opinion of Bernier, Aurangzeb was "a great and rare genius, a great statesman, and a great king." Both the revenue and the expenses of the empire were immense and there was hardly anything that could beat the pomp and magnificence of the Moghul court.
Court.	As regards commerce, the country enjoyed such peculiar advantages that it might well be called "an abyss of gold and silver," which swallowed up vast quantities of these precious metals circulated through the world.
Commerce.	But in spite of this great wealth, the people were poor, as all the good things belonged to the emperor and the great lords. There was hardly any check on the provincial governors, who sometimes oppressed the people so much that many fled to the neighbouring Hindu states, where "they found less tyranny and more kindness." The laws were good, but they were not always observed, and the judges were often open to corruption.
People	The artisans were very skilful and could turn out works which could hardly be surpassed anywhere else in point of excellence. But unfortunately they were often ill treated by their employers, the grandees, who paid them as they
Official rapacity.	
Artisans.	

pleased and even sometimes gave them the *korah* (whip) in place of payment. There was consequently a lack of motive for further improvement of arts. There was a huge standing army which consisted of Hindus and Pathans, as well as of Moghuls. The term *Moghul* included "all sorts of strangers,—Usbecks, Persians, Arabians and Turks," besides the true Moghuls. The Hindu Rajas, however, formed the main strength of the field army and were as much esteemed as the highest Muhammadan grandees. Many parts of the country were well-peopled and cultivated, but of all the provinces, Bengal was the richest and most beautiful. It was the most fruitful country in the world, "abounding in all things" necessary for life and happiness, and was consequently much resorted to by European traders. From Rajmahal to the sea, the country was "full of great channels, formerly cut out of the river Ganges with vast labour, reaching far into the country for the convenience of transporting commodities." These channels were on both sides lined with populous villages and towns, and the large fields lying near them bore abundance of rice, sugar, legumes, mustard, sesamum, etc. The beautiful isles in the midst of the Ganges were filled with "all sorts of verdure," but "many of these isles that are next the sea" had been abandoned on account of the ravages of the Portuguese pirates and had at that time no other inhabitants than tigers, and gazelles, and hogs and poultry grown wild.

Army.

Wealth of Bengal.

Portuguese Pirates.

Tavernier, who was a merchant-traveller, arrived in India a few years before Bernier. They afterwards made acquaintance with each other and travelled

Tavernier's account.

together for sometime The account which Tavernier has left of the country is exceedingly interesting As a political history of the time, Bernier's work seems to be more valuable than Tavernier's, but as an account of the trade, produce, money, exchange, conveyance, roads, etc of India, during the seventeenth century, the value of Tavernier's records can hardly be over estimated He repeatedly visited most parts of India and was well acquainted with the country The manner of travelling in India, in his opinion, "was more commodious than anything that had been invented for ease in France or Italy." The civil government was generally strict and the security enjoyed under it was great "Shah Jahan," he says, "reigned not so much as a king over his subjects, but rather as a father over his family and children" Like Roe and Bernier, he is profuse in his praise of the grandeur of the court of the Great Moghul, who, according to him, was "without all question the richest and most potent monarch of Asia"

Its value.

Travelling

Administration

Court

BRITISH PERIOD.

CHAPTER I.

INDIA UNDER THE EAST INDIA COMPANY

British Administration in India organised

The year 1761 begins a new period—The year 1761 is a turning point in the history of India—the year of the capture of Pondicherry and the third battle of Panipat. The French were crushed, the Mahrattas were humbled, and there was no power either native or foreign which could now hope to cope successfully with the English in a contest for empire in India. A new power was indeed rising in Southern India under Hyder Ali, who had seized the throne of Mysore in 1760, after deposing his master Raja Krishna Rai. But though for a time it caused alarm and gave trouble to the English, it never became formidable enough to bid against them for the sovereignty of all India. The subsequent history of the country, therefore, is but a history of the building up and consolidation of the British Empire in India.

Commence
ment of the
British
Period

How the Conquest of Bengal led to the expansion of British Power—The conquest of Bengal was very useful to the English, as it afforded every facility for a further expansion of British Power. Bengal was, as it still is, the richest province of India, and its conquerors could always find abundant supplies for carrying on their wars. From Bengal,

Political
advantage
of Bengal.

the English could also easily advance into the heart of Northern India and conquer the whole valley of the Ganges without meeting with opposition from any great power. The Hugh provided them with a very good harbour for their ships, on which as a naval power, they had to depend very much.

Mir Kasim quarrels with the English.—But Mir Kasim, their new nominee on the throne of Bengal, was not at all satisfied with his position and wanted to shake off the yoke of the English. For this purpose he removed his capital from Murshidabad to Monghyr, and began to discipline his troops after the European fashion. Soon a quarrel arose between the Nawab and the English about the payment of transit duties. The East India Company had the privilege of trading in Bengal duty free, on payment of an annual consolidated sum. The privilege was, however, abused. Not only did the Company's servants avail themselves of it to trade on their own private account, but they also extended it to those native dealers whom they favoured. This was an injustice to other native dealers, while the Nawab was deprived of a large part of his revenue. Mir Kasim, therefore, made representation to the Council at Calcutta. The then Governor, Vansittart, and Warren Hastings, a member of the Council, supported the Nawab, but they were over-ruled by their colleagues. The Nawab, being enraged, abolished the transit duties altogether, thus destroying the privilege enjoyed by the English.

War breaks out.—Hostilities at once commenced. Mr. Ellis, the chief of the English factory at Patna,

Mir Kasim's
ambition

Quarrel
about transit
duties

Vansittart
and
Hastings.

seized that city, but the Nawab's troops recaptured the place and took Mr Ellis prisoner, with all his followers. But in the war that followed, Mir Kasim's army was thrice defeated, at Cutwa, at Gheria, and at Udwanala. The Nawab, in his rage, massacred the English prisoners at Patna, but Patna was soon taken by the English, and he fled to Oudh.

Battles of
Cutwa,
Gheria and
Udwanala

The victory of Buxar establishes the British power in Northern India.—The Emperor Shah Alam (successor of Alamgir II) and the Nawab of Oudh now espoused the cause of the fugitive Nawab, and invaded Behar. But they were signally defeated by Major Hector Munro at Buxar in 1764. Shah Alam then voluntarily joined the English and the Nawab of Oudh, after some further resistance, surrendered. Mir Kasim fled to the north west and died in poverty. The victory of Buxar increased the power and prestige of the English still further. It brought the whole territory of Oudh to their feet while it threw the Moghul emperor into their power.

Shah Alam
II

Battle of
Buxar

Its
importance

New Nawabs set up in Bengal.—Mir Jafar had again been proclaimed Nawab of Bengal during the hostilities with Mir Kasim. But he was old and feeble, and died in January, 1765. His second son, Najmuddaula, a youth of twenty, was then raised to the throne and it was arranged that the military defence of the country should be placed in the hands of the Company and that a Muhammadan grandee, named Muhammad Reza Khan, should act as the Deputy of the young Nawab.

Mir Jafar,
again

Naj mud-
daula

Reza Khan

Clive again appointed Governor of Bengal.—Meanwhile the Directors of the East India Company,

Return of
Clive

being dissatisfied at the manner in which their Indian servants had been conducting their affairs, had requested Clive (now Lord Clive) to return to India, with full powers to adopt any measures for the restoration of order. Clive arrived in Bengal in 1765 and immediately proceeded to place the affairs of the Company on a better footing.

Deputy
Nawabs
Reza
Khan and
Shitab Rai

Clive makes a new settlement—The arrangements with the Nawab for the military defence of the country were definitely settled. Muhammad Reza Khan was left as Deputy Nawab at Murshudabad, while Raja Shitab Rai was appointed to act in the same capacity at Patna. Clive then met Shah Alam and the Nawab of Oudh at Allahabad. The dominions of the latter were restored to him on condition of his paying the English fifty lakhs of rupees for the expenses of the war, and ceding the districts of Allahabad and Kora to the Emperor Shah Alam by way of tribute. Shah Alam in return granted the *Dewans* of Bengal, Behar and Orissa to the East India Company, which was to pay him a tribute of twenty-six lakhs of rupees a year. The Company also obtained from the Emperor a formal grant of the Northern Circars.

Grant of the
Dewan of
Bengal

Northern
Circars

Division of
authority
and res-
ponsibility

Clive's measures lead to the establishment of a double Government in Bengal—A dual constitution was thus set up in Bengal. The Nawab as the *Nazim*, looked after the administration of criminal justice and police while the East India Company, as the *Dewan* received the revenue paid the Nawab and his officials their salaries, sent tribute to the Emperor, provided for the defence of the provinces,

and kept the surplus revenue to itself. The English, however, left the actual work of collecting the revenue in the hands of the native officials, headed by the Deputy Nawabs Reza Khan and Shitab Rai who thus represented in their persons both the Nawab and the Dewan, and looked after both civil and criminal justice within their jurisdiction.

Deputy
Nawabs as
revenue
collectors.

What led Clive to adopt these measures—This arrangement was mainly based on the old Moghul system of government though in this case the Dewan was vested with the control of the army, as well as of the revenue. In restoring the old form of government, Clive was probably actuated by the motive of gradually strengthening the sovereignty of the English in Bengal, with as little disturbance to the existing machinery of government as possible. By this arrangement the English seemed to act as officers of the Great Moghul, while in reality they were masters of the province, having control over the revenue and the army. The puppet emperor at Allahabad and the cypher Nawab at Murshidabad served not only to disarm the jealousies of the rival powers but also to smooth down the feelings of the people of the province who have always had a high veneration for the established order of things.

British
sovereignty
veiled by
old form of
government.

Clive reforms the Company's service.—The reform of the Company's service in Bengal next engaged the attention of Lord Clive. Almost all the servants of the Company were corrupt in those days. To augment their miserably small salaries, they were permitted by the Company to engage in private trade, and not content with this, they added to their income

Corrupt
servants.

Clive's
reforms

by taking gifts from the natives for private services, which they could not render without being unfaithful to the Company's interests. Clive prohibited these practices altogether in spite of violent opposition from all officers both civil and military, but at the same time he made arrangements for a reasonable increase of official salaries.

Evils of the
Double
Government

The Double Government fails—Clive left India for the last time in 1767. There was again disorder in Bengal. Clive's plan of Double Government proved a failure for it led to a faulty division of duties and consequently of responsibility. The English cared only for the income and would not interfere with the collection of the revenue or the internal administration of the country which were in the hands of native officers. The ill-paid native collectors on the other hand robbed and plundered the inhabitants, and did not consider it a part of their duty to look after the welfare of the province. All classes of the people suffered grievously and loud complaints of injustice and oppression were heard from every side. To crown all a terrible famine visited the land in 1770, and swept away millions of the poor inhabitants, turning numerous flourishing villages into jungles and homes of wild animals.

Bengal
famine
of 1770

First Mysore
War

The first collision between the English and Hyder Ali—There was also trouble in Southern India. The Nizam began to intrigue with Hyder Ali of Mysore against the English. A war followed and the English defeated the allies. Thereupon the fickle Nizam deserted Hyder and came over to the side of the victors. But Hyder continued the war

and at length appeared within five miles of Madras (1769) The Madras Council being seized with panic accepted the terms proposed by Hyder The conquests on both sides were restored and a defensive alliance was made between the two parties

The Mahrattas defeat Hyder Ali — Shortly after Hyder was engaged in a contest with the Mahrattas who invaded his territories and laid siege to his capital Seringapatam Hyder in his distress sought the English at Madras for help on the strength of the recent defensive alliance But the English unwilling to plunge into a war with the Mahrattas did not send any help and Hyder was obliged to accept the terms imposed upon him by his enemies (1771) Hyder never forgave the English for abandoning him in this way and burned with thoughts of revenge

Mahratta
invasion of
Mysore

Warren Hastings appointed Governor of Bengal — Meanwhile the disorders in the administration of Bengal had attracted the attention of the Court of Directors The evils of a dual system of government had become apparent to them and they resolved to do away with it To carry out the reform they appointed in 1772 the ablest man in the service to be Governor of Bengal This was Warren Hastings

He first came to Bengal in 1750 as a writer but in ten years he rose to be a member of the Council at Calcutta where he proved his honesty and love of justice by supporting the just complaint of the Nawab Mir Kasim in the matter of the transit duties When he became Governor of Bengal he at once set

Early career
of Hastings

himself to carry out a series of reforms, which were to change the East India Company from irresponsible seekers of gain into responsible administrators of the state

Abolition of
Double
Government

Hastings makes new arrangements for the Collection of revenue—The Collection of the revenue was taken out of the hands of the corrupt native officials and transferred to European collectors, each placed in charge of a district. The central revenue offices were removed from Murshudabad and Patna to Calcutta, and were placed under a Board of Revenue consisting of high English officials. A new settlement was made with the Zamindars. Those who offered reasonable terms were allowed to continue in possession of their estates, but when any offer was considered to be inadequate, a subsistence allowance was granted to the Zamindar, and his estate was leased to the highest bidder. Some of the most oppressive imposts were abolished and new leases were granted to the *ryots* or tenants.

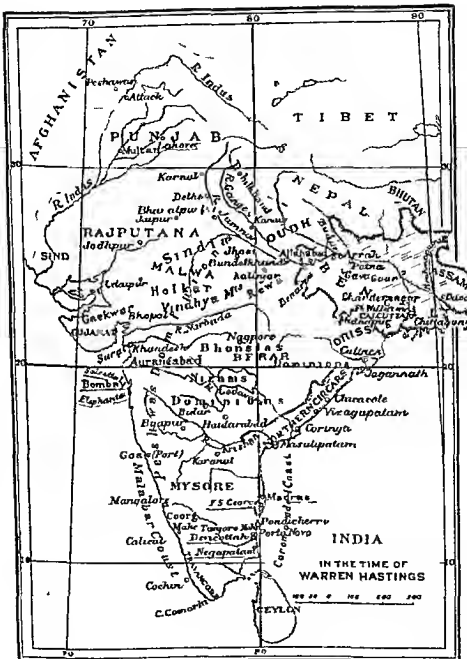
Board of
Revenue.

Settlement
with the
Zamindars

District
courts

Sadar
Adalats.

Hastings' Judicial Reforms—The change in the system of revenue administration made necessary a new provision for the administration of justice. Two courts a civil and a criminal, were appointed for each district and both were presided over by the District Collector, who was assisted by *Kazis* provincial *Deutans*, and other native officers. Thus the oppressive system of the administration of justice by the Zamindars and the native courts was abolished. At the same time two Courts of Appeal were established in Calcutta—the *Sadar Dewani Adalat* for civil cases, and the *Sadar Nizamat Adalat* for criminal cases.



Hastings' Financial Reforms —The Double Government having been abolished, Hastings cut down the Nawab's allowance to one half, and thus made a large annual saving. He then stopped payment of tribute to Shah Alam who had gone to Delli at the instance of the Mahrattas. To pay him, argued Hastings was practically to pay the Mahrattas the most formidable rivals of the English. Shah Alam had made over to the Mahrattas the provinces of Kora and Allahabad, which had been allotted to him by Clive in 1765. Hastings held that by so doing the Emperor had forfeited his title to these provinces, which were accordingly re-sold to the Nawab of Oudh for a large sum of money. Thus nearly all the political arrangements of Clive were radically changed in a few years after his departure.

Tribute to
Shah Alam
stopped

Sale of Kora
and
Allahabad
to Oudh

Hastings helps the Nawab of Oudh against the Rohillas —The Nawab of Oudh had long been bent on annexing the territory of his neighbours the Rohillas. Hastings, under pressing financial needs, was induced to lend him some British troops with the help of whom the Nawab defeated the Rohillas in 1774 and added Rohilkhand to his dominions. The action of Hastings was a good stroke of policy as it not only helped to fill the exhausted treasury, but also broke the dangerous power of the Rohillas and at the same time secured the frontiers of Bengal against the inroads of the Mahrattas by strengthening the ruler of Oudh an ally whom the English could trust.

Rohilla war

Its effects.

The Regulating Act introduces the first great change into the Government of British India — Meanwhile the story of the misgovernment of the

East India Company had reached the ears of the British Parliament Lord North minister of King George III determined to interfere Accordingly in the year 1773 an act was passed at his instance for the regulation of the Company This act called the Regulating Act vested the Government of the Bengal Presidency in a Governor General and a Council of four members rendered the Presidencies of Madras and Bombay subordinate to Bengal and established in Calcutta a Supreme Court of Judicature consisting of a Chief Justice and three other Judges appointed by the Crown with power to try the Company's servants

Governor
General and
Council

Supreme
Court

Formation
of the new
constitution

Hastings becomes the First Governor-General — Under this Act Hastings was appointed the first Governor General The four members selected to form his Council were Colonel Monson General Clavering Sir Philip Francis and Richard Barwell the first three of whom had never been in India before Sir Elijah Impey was the first Chief Justice of the Supreme Court

The new Constitution gives rise to difficulties — The new constitution was formed in 1774 By this the British ministry hoped to put an end to the corrupt rule of the Company's servants in India No doubt it did much good but it was defective and gave rise to confusion and troubles It was uncertain who possessed the supreme power—the Governor General the majority of the Council or the Supreme Court Warren Hastings might naturally think that being the Governor General he was the highest authority in British India but he could be out voted and

Its defects

thwarted by the majority of the Council; while the Supreme Court, which was independent of the Governor-General and his Council, could pass judgment on the action of both.

Hastings thwarted by the Council—In fact disputes arose immediately after the arrival of the new Councillors and the new Judges in India. Two factions were at once formed in the Council,—one consisting of Hastings and Barwell, and the other of Francis, Clavering and Monson. Francis was a bitter enemy of Hastings, and, as he commanded the majority, he could always over-rule Hastings and reverse everything he did.

Factions in
the Council.

Sir Philip
Francis.

The Council makes fresh arrangements with Oudh—The political transactions of Hastings were first attacked. On the death of the Nawab of Oudh early in 1775, the majority in Council, headed by Francis, entered into a fresh arrangement with his successor, who was forced to cede to the Company the province of Benares. In spite of the opposition of Hastings, the Council also admitted the claims of the Begums, the mother and the widow of the late Nawab, to the whole of the treasure accumulated by him, and thus deprived the new Nawab of the means of paying the heavy debt which Oudh owed to the Company.

Acquisition
of Benares.

The Council entertains complaints against Hastings—Nor was the opposition confined to political measures only. It was openly understood that any accusation against the Governor-General would be entertained by the Council, and petition from the enemies of Hastings began to pour in from every side.

Nanda
Kumar's
charges
against
Hastings

The most important of these came from an influential Brahman named Maharaja Nand Kumar who charged Hastings with putting offices up to sale and with receiving bribes for suffering offenders to escape. Sir Philip Francis and his two friends in the Council readily listened to the stories and condemned Hastings as guilty.

Nanda Kumar tried and hanged—Hastings however denied the charges and in the Supreme Court brought a charge of conspiracy against Nanda Kumar. While the case was pending a man named Mohan Prasad brought forward a charge of forgery against Nanda Kumar. The latter was at once arrested and tried before Sir Elijah Impey who found him guilty and sentenced him to death according to the English law of the day (1775).

Sir Elijah
Impey

Hastings again in power—The immediate effect of the execution of Nanda Kumar was to put a stop to all further accusations against Hastings and in 1777 the death of Monson placed Hastings in power by enabling him to overrule the opposition by means of his casting vote.

Supreme
Court vs
Sadar
Adalats

The Supreme Court in conflict with the Supreme Council—But still there was another difficulty to overcome. The Supreme Court had come into violent conflict with the Council on the question of jurisdiction as it was not definitely known what persons and what cases the new Court had the power to try. At last Hastings tried to set the question at rest by changing the constitution of the Sadar Dewani Adalat the powers of which were transferred from Governor General in Council to the Chief Justice.

Treaty of
Salbai

Acquisition
of Salsette,
Elephanta,
etc

War bet
ween the
French and
the English

Second
Mysore War

Death of
Hyder

The English restored the territories they had conquered from the Mahrattas since the commencement of the war, retaining only the possession of Salsette, Elephanta and two other small islands, Raghoba was set aside on a pension, and Madhu Rao Narayan was recognised as Peshwa

Hyder Ali again in collusion with the English — The Mahrattas were not however, the only enemies that Warren Hastings had to deal with In 1778 a war broke out between the English and the French and the Carnatic again became the scene of hostility between these two nations The English gradually conquered almost all the possessions of France in India till they came to the French settlement of Mahe which was in the dominions of Hyder Ali The Governor of Madras intimated to Hyder Ali the necessity of reducing Mahe But Hyder who had been offended with the English for their failure to help him during the invasion of his kingdom by the Mahrattas in 1771, protested against any attack on the place His remonstrances were not listened to, and the second Mysore War ensued

In 1780 Hyder, now an old man of sixty, again marched towards Madras with a large army, and cut off and destroyed a detachment of the British army that opposed him On hearing the news, Hastings sent Sir Eyre Coote, the victor of Wandiwash, to relieve Madras Sir Eyre obtained some brilliant victories over the Mysore army, but Hyder went on fighting till his death in 1782 Even after his death, the war was continued by his son and successor, Tipu Sultan, who was aided by French

troops under the veteran general Bussy. Peace was however concluded between England and France in 1763 and Bussy ceased all military operations against the English. Next year the Madras Government entered into a treaty with Tipu Sultan at Mangalore on the basis of a mutual restitution of all conquests.

Tipu Sultan

Treaty of
Mangalore

Hastings in need.—The expenses of these wars were a heavy drain on the treasury of the British Government in India and it was the onerous duty of Hastings to meet the extraordinary demand for money. The means he took to fulfil this duty gave a handle to his enemies to attack him on his return to England.

Empty
treasury

Hastings demands money from Chait Singh.—He demanded from Raja Chait Singh of Benares who had come under the protection of the British in 1775 a large contribution towards the cost of the wars. The demand had sanction of the usage of the country but the Raja evaded compliance with it. This led to his arrest. But he escaped from custody and headed a rebellion against the British Government. He was however defeated and fled to Gwalior and Benares was transferred to his nephew subject to an increased tribute.

Rebellion of
Chait Singh

The Begums of Oudh are made to pay.—The Nawab of Oudh owed at this time a vast sum of money to the British Government. Hastings now pressed him for payment but the Nawab declared his inability to pay unless he was put in possession of the treasure laid up by his predecessor to which the claim of the Begums of Oudh had been acknowledged by Hastings. His opponents in the Council. Hastings agreed to help the Nawab to get the money from the Begums who

Case of the
Begums

were charged with abetting Chait Singh in his rebellion. Severe pressure was put on the ladies and their servants, and seventy five lakhs of rupees were obtained from them.

Hastings leaves India — These transactions were disapproved by the Directors, and Hastings tendered his resignation. He made over charge of the government to Mr Macpherson, senior member of the Council and sailed for England in 1785.

At the time of his departure the British dominions in India included Bengal, Behar, and Benares in Hindusthan, Northern Circars (with the exception of Guntoor Sircar), Madras (with a small area round it), Devicottah and Nigapatam in the eastern Deccan, and Bombay, Salsette, Elephanta, the fort of Surat and some other small places in the western Deccan. There were also two protected princes, namely, the Nawab of Oudh and the Nawab of Arcot.

Hastings impeached but acquitted — In England Hastings was honourably received by the authorities, but his enemies, among whom was Sir Philip Francis, roused the popular feeling against him, and he was impeached before the House of Lords by the House of Commons on several charges. Some of the most famous British orators of the day, Burke, Sheridan and Fox, denounced Hastings in very strong terms, but after a trial of seven years he was acquitted. Whatever might be the value of these charges against him, it is admitted on all hands that he was one of the ablest of the British administrators in India, and that he established law and order in Bengal.

Pitt's India Act introduces the second great

Extent of
British India
in 1785

Trial of
Hastings

change into the Government of India —During the latter part of the administration of Hastings Indian affairs received a great deal of attention from the British public and there was a feeling that the Governor General should be made directly responsible to the British Government itself and not simply to a trading company Accordingly a Bill to this effect was introduced into Parliament by Fox in 1783 but it was thrown out by the Lords In the next year the famous prime minister Pitt brought forward a new India Bill which passed both the House and became law By it the Government of India was nominally left in the hands of the Directors of the East India Company but was practically vested in a Board of Control formed from the members of the Privy Council The President of the Board who was an important member of the Ministry was in effect a Secretary of State for India Thus the administration of the British possessions in India became a part of the general system of the British Government

Fox's India
Bill

Pitt's India
Act

Board of
Control

CHAPTER. II.

INDIA UNDER THE EAST INDIA COMPANY

British Ascendency

Lord Cornwallis becomes Governor General with enlarged powers — Sir John Macpherson acted as Governor General for twenty months, and was succeeded in 1786 by Lord Cornwallis, who had served as a general in the American War of Independence. Lord Cornwallis had a great advantage over Warren Hastings. He had made it a condition of his acceptance of the office that the Governor General should henceforth be allowed to over rule his Council in extreme cases. His action therefore could not be hampered by the majority in the Council in the same way as was done in the case of Warren Hastings. Besides he enjoyed the confidence of the British ministry, and as he was a good general, he was also made the commander in chief of the British army in India.

Cornwallis reforms the Service and organises the Judicial System — Cornwallis introduced some very important reforms into the administration of India. He searched out all sources of official corruption and stopped them, while he increased the salaries of the officers in proportion to their duties and responsibilities. He separated the functions of collectors

Sir John
Macpherson

Advantages
of Cornwallis
over
Hastings

Administra-
tive reforms

and judges, and set up separate civil courts in each district, with four general courts of appeal from any of which a final appeal lay to the Şadar Dewan Adalat of Calcutta. The criminal cases were tried by civil judges in rotation.

Cornwallis makes the Permanent Settlement of Bengal—The most important administrative reform of Cornwallis was the Permanent Settlement of the land revenue of Bengal. Hastings' system of farming out Zamindaries to the highest bidder on temporary leases had ruined many old Zamindars. The new Zamindars often oppressed their ryots to meet the heavy demands of the Government, and even then were sometimes unable to pay the revenue agreed upon. The amount actually realised thus varied from year to year. To avoid the fluctuation and ensure punctual realisation of the revenue Sir Philip Francis had recommended a permanent settlement with the Zamindars, and the same view was taken by the authorities at home. In 1786, the Directors sent out instructions to make a settlement with the Zamindars for a period of ten years to be made permanent, if it should work well. In 1793, this settlement was declared to be permanent by Lord Cornwallis. By it, the proprietary right in the soil was formally vested in the Zamindars, while the land revenue of Bengal, being fixed in perpetuity, was placed on a stable basis.

Evil of
Hastings'
land
settlement

Decennial
Settlement

Permanent
Settlement

The Permanent Settlement has conferred a great benefit upon Bengal. It has created a local aristocracy, rich, powerful, and loyal, while it has improved the cultivation and raised the value of land. But unfor-

Its

Its defects

unately it not only ignored whatever proprietary right the ryots had in the land, but also made no provision for their protection against the oppression of the Zamindars. It was reserved for the future to find out these defects and take steps to remove them.

Cornwallis adopts the policy of a Balance of Power—Lord Cornwallis came out pledged to secure the peace of the country, and the policy that he adopted to ensure this object has been called the policy of a Balance of Power. It meant a combination of states against any individual power that threatened to disturb the public peace. It was in accordance with this policy that Cornwallis went to war with Tipu Sultan, who had been steadily growing in power and ambition since the treaty of Mangalore.

Third Mysore War—In 1789, Tipu attacked the Raja of Travancore, who was an ally of the British Government. Upon this, Cornwallis declared war against Tipu and formed an alliance against him with the other great powers viz., the Nizam and the Mahrattas. The war lasted for three years and in the end, Tipu submitted. A peace was concluded in 1792, and Tipu had to pay a large sum of money as a war indemnity, and cede one half of his dominions to be equally divided among the allies.

Sir John Shore pursues the policy of Non-intervention—Cornwallis left India in 1793, and was succeeded by Sir John Shore (afterwards Lord Teignmouth), an Indian civilian, who had been mainly instrumental in effecting the land settlement of Bengal. Sir John followed a policy of Non-Intervention in the affairs of other powers, and refused to help the Nizam,

Treaty of
Seringa-
patam

Annexation
of a part of
Mysore

when he was attacked by the Mahrattas The result was that the Nizam was ignominiously routed by the Mahrattas at Kharda and had to cede a large portion of his dominions to the victors

Battle of
Kharda

Lord Wellesley sees that a Balance of Power or Non-Intervention does not suit India—Sir John embarked for England in 1798 His successor was Lord Mornington better known as the Marquis of Wellesley The new Governor General was convinced that neither the policy of Non Intervention nor that of a Balance of Power was suited to the then political condition of the country The Indian chiefs were at that time intent upon each other's ruin and their own advancement and it could hardly be expected that they would join in any scheme to secure the peace of the country Several of them had moreover in their service battalions trained and commanded by French officers who were known to be hostile to the British Wellesley accordingly came to the conclusion that the interest of his masters as well as that of humanity demanded that the British power should be made paramount in India

Failure of
the policies
of Balance
of Power
and Non-
inter-
vention

And adopts the policy of British Supremacy with Subsidiary Alliances—Wellesley's policy was therefore a policy of Intervention It led to the adoption of what has been called the Subsidiary System According to this system the native states were invited to surrender their political independence to the British in exchange for the promise of the latter to protect them against all foreign enemies No state which would enter into such an alliance with the British was to make any wars or carry on any

System of
Subsidiary
Treaties

Terms of the
alliance

political transactions or take any foreigner into its service, without the consent of the British Government. The larger states were also required to keep a body of soldiers commanded by British officers and to cede certain territories for its maintenance, while a tribute was demanded from the smaller states.

The Nizam enters into the Subsidiary Alliance — Wellesley first addressed himself to the Nizam, the weakest of the three great native powers of the South. The Nizam who had recently been defeated by the Mahrattas, and was therefore in great need of British protection, gladly accepted the terms offered to him by the Governor General and entered into a subsidiary alliance with the British Government. This politic step not only saved the Nizam's dominions from ruin, but considerably enlarged their extent, as the British power increased in Southern India.

The Last Mysore War — Of the other two great powers, the Mahratta and Mysore, the latter at first seemed to be the more dangerous. Tipu Sultan was intriguing with the French and making preparations again to measure his strength with the English. Wellesley saw that he must either induce Tipu to accept a subsidiary alliance or crush him. As the first alternative failed, the second became necessary. War was declared in 1799 and both the Nizam and the Mahrattas joined the English to fight against Tipu. Seringapatam the capital of Tipu's kingdom was taken by storm, when Tipu died fighting bravely. The central portion of his dominions was restored to the Hindu royal family whom Hyder had set aside, the rest was set apart for the English and their allies.

The Nizam,
the first
feudatory

Fourth
Mysore War

Restoration
of the Hindu
dynasty

The members of Tipu's family were removed to Vellore, where suitable provision was made for them.

The Mahratta power tottering—The next power to be dealt with was the Mahratta. Though the Mahrattas had avowedly joined the English in the war against Tipu, they really entertained no friendly feeling towards them. Baji Rao, son of Raghoba, had succeeded Madhu Rao Narayan in the Peshwaship in 1795, but the conduct of Mahratta affairs was still in the hands of Nana Farnavis who firmly opposed the introduction of the subsidiary system into the Mahratta state. The Mahratta power was, however, showing about this time unmistakable signs of a speedy dissolution. Mutual discord and individual ambition—two main causes of the fall of kingdoms—were already in evidence. Each of the great Mahratta houses, of which Sindhua and Holkar were the chief, was trying to aggrandise itself at the expense of the others. So long as Nana Farnavis lived and guided Mahratta affairs he managed somehow to hold the discordant elements together, and thus averted the fall for the time being. But the great statesman died in 1800, and "with him departed all the wisdom and moderation of the Mahratta Government." Deprived of his guidance, the Peshwa, Baji Rao II was not at all fitted to direct the Mahratta policy at this crisis. Disorders at once broke out. Sindhua got the upper hand at Poona and kept guard over the Peshwa. But Holkar defeated the united forces of Sindhua and Baji Rao, and set up another Peshwa at Poona.

The Peshwa accepts the Subsidiary Alliance—After his defeat, Baji Rao fled for his life to Bassein,

Baji Rao II.
the seventh
Peshwa

Nana
Farnavis

The
Mahrattas
on the brink
of ruin

Death of
Nana
Farnavis

Mutual
discord

Treaty of
Bassein

and threw himself on the protection of the English. On the last day of the year 1802, he concluded at Bassein a subsidiary treaty with the British, on condition of being restored to the Peshwaship. Thus at last, the avowed head of the Mahrattas, who were now the only rivals of the British, became a feudatory of the British Government. This event might be regarded as marking the establishment of the British as the acknowledged Paramount Power in India, but the headship of the Peshwa over the other great Mahratta houses was only nominal, and it could hardly be expected that these powerful families would yield their independence without a struggle. The Gaekwar of Baroda, indeed, entered into a subsidiary alliance with the English, but the other chiefs were highly displeased at the conduct of Bajī Rao, and showed no intention of following his example.

The Second Mahratta War—Even the Peshwa himself soon repented of his hasty act, and immediately after his restoration he secretly implored Sindhua and the Bhonsla Raja of Nagpur to come and free him from the British yoke. Accordingly these Mahratta chiefs moved with large forces to the rescue of Bajī Rao. The Second Mahratta War followed. The British armies were led by the Governor General's brother, Sir Arthur Wellesley (afterwards the great Duke of Wellington) and General (afterwards Lord) Lake, who conducted the campaigns in the Deccan and in Hindusthan respectively. In September, 1803 Sir Arthur won a splendid victory over Sindhua's army at Assaye, and in November he totally routed the army of the Bhonsla Raja at the battle of

its
importance

Gaekwar,
feudatory

Sir Arthur
Wellesley

Battles of
Assaye and
Argaum

Argaum Meanwhile Lord Lake captured Delhi and Agra and destroyed the French battalions of Sindhua at the battle of Laswari. The discomfited chiefs soon opened negotiations for peace. The Bhonsla had to cede to the British the provinces of Orissa and Western Berar, while Sindhua had to give up the Doab between the Ganges and the Jumna, and most of his possessions in Rajputana and the Deccan, except his private hereditary estates.

Capture of
Delhi

Battle of
Laswari

Acquisition
of Orissa,
W Berar,
the Doab
etc

Holkar was now the only chief that remained unsubdued. He had been repeatedly invited by Sindhua and the Bhonsla to join them during the late war but preferred to hold aloof and even expressed his gratification at the humiliation of his rival Sindhua. He was more of a freebooter than a military chief, and his predatory excursions spread general alarm throughout Central India. He not only plundered the protected allies of the English in Rajputana but even went so far as to demand *chauth* from the British Government. The Governor General accordingly decided to crush him. War was declared against him in 1804 and General Lake invaded his territories. Holkar had some success at first, and almost succeeded in destroying a division of the British army under Colonel Monson, but in the end he was defeated by Lake, and took refuge in the Punjab. In the course of the war, the Jat Raja of Bharatpur threw off his allegiance to the English and declared in favour of the Mahratta chief. General Lake laid siege to the fort of Bharatpur, and though he failed to take it the Raja at last got alarmed and tendered his submission.

Holkar's
attitude

Supplemen-
tary war
with Holkar

Siege of
Bharatpur.

Rivals of
the English
humbled

Success of Wellesley's policy—The success of Wellesley's scheme was thus nearly complete. The power of Mysore was broken, and the kingdom much reduced in extent, was placed under a British nominee. The Nizam, the Gaekwar, and the Rajput chiefs were faithful vassals of the British Raj. The Peshwa, too, had acknowledged the British overlordship. The Bhonsla, Sindhya and Holkar were humbled. The British Government had also exercised its right of control as Paramount Power by interfering in the internal affairs and changing the administrations of some of the minor states to ensure better government. In 1800, when a dispute arose in Tanjore between two rival claimants to the throne, Wellesley secured peace by placing the principality under British administration. In the next year, the Carnatic was dealt with in a similar way, on the ground that its Nawab had carried on a treasonable correspondence with Tipu. This was followed by the adjustment of affairs in Oudh. The exactions of the Nawab of Oudh had made him very unpopular among his people, while his forces had become utterly useless for defending the country against the attacks of the restless Mahrattas. As the defence of Oudh involved that of Bengal, Wellesley induced the Nawab, in 1801, to reduce his worthless army and to receive instead a number of additional European troops, for whose maintenance the Nawab had to cede the districts of Kora, Allahabad and Rohilkhand. The controlling authority of the British Government was thus exercised in almost all parts of India.

Annexation
of Tanjore
and
Carnatic

Oudh affairs

Annexation
of Kora,
Allahabad
and
Rohilkhand

Wellesley's policy unwisely abandoned by the

Directors—Yet the work was not wholly finished. The humiliated Mahratta chiefs could ill brook the supremacy of the British, and were ready to avail themselves of any opportunity to recover their lost prestige and power. So long as they were not totally crushed, trouble might still be expected from them. Had Wellesley remained in India for some time longer, he might have put an end to this source of danger, and thus brought his great policy to a triumphant conclusion. But unfortunately the Court of Directors disapproved of this policy of interference which was very expensive, and sent out Lord Cornwallis again in 1805 as Governor General, with express instructions to revert to the old policy of Non Intervention, and to conciliate the Mahratta chiefs by restoring their conquered territories. The result was that the peace which Wellesley wished to secure was delayed by a few years.

Source of
future
trouble

Revival of
the non
interven-
tion policy

Lord Cornwallis (again) and Sir George Barlow—Lord Cornwallis arrived in India in a very weak state of health and died shortly after at Ghazipur. Sir George Barlow, the senior member of the Council, succeeded Cornwallis, and pursued, like him, the policy of Non-Intervention, according to the wish of the Court of Directors. Peace was made with Holkar on more favourable terms than that chief could ever have expected, while the British protection was withdrawn from the Rajput states, which were thus left at the mercy of the Mahrattas and Amir Khan, an Afghan leader of freebooters and founder of the principality of Tonk.

Death of
Cornwallis.

Amir Khan.

Earl of Minto—Lord Minto succeeded Barlow

Results of
non inter-
vention

State of
Western and
Central
India

Tragedy of
Krishna
Kumari

in 1807. He, too, followed as a rule the policy of Non Intervention, obedient to the wishes of the Directors at home. The result was that Western and Central India presented a scene of rapine, violence and disorder of every kind. Rajputana was convulsed by a domestic struggle between Jaipur and Jodhpur, in which nearly all the Rajput chiefs took part. The cause of the quarrel was a beautiful Rajput princess Krishna Kumari by name. She was the daughter of the Rana of Udaipur who had betrothed her to the chief of Jodhpur. But the latter died and his successor claimed the hand of the princess on the ground that her betrothal had really been to the Jodhpur Raj, of which he was the present owner. But the Raja of Jaipur also wanted to marry her. The result was a war between the rival claimants. This opportunity was turned to account by Amir Khan, who with his organised horde of bandits went from one side to the other and, under the pretence of helping the combatants, desolated their states for his own benefit. At last the Afghan freebooter made the wicked suggestion that the only way to re-establish peace was to do away with the innocent princess. The Rana was weak enough to agree to the infamous proposal and himself handed over a cup of poison to his daughter. The latter with self-sacrificing spirit, characteristic of her race, at once drank off the fatal potion in order to save her country from the terrible miseries which had been brought on by the civil war. Irregular bands of freebooters known as Pindaris, whose depredations had been so long confined to Malwa and Rajputana, now extended their raids into

The
Pindaris

the Deccan They welcomed to their ranks the lawless men of all India without distinction of caste or creed and became a terror to those parts of the country which they visited

Lord Minto, however, departed from the policy of Non Intervention on two occasions, once to restore order in Bundelkhand, the petty chiefs of which had grown very turbulent, and at another time to protect Nagpur against the invasion of the freebooter Amir Khan In both cases, his operations were successful

Intervention
in Bundel
Khand and
Nagpur

Minto extends the foreign relations of British India—At this time a war was going on between Great Britain and Napoleon Bonaparte, emperor of France and the French ships of war were harassing the commerce of the East India Company Besides, in 1807 Napoleon sent an embassy to Persia, which resulted in the establishment of French influence in that country To check the progress of the French in the East, Lord Minto sent an expedition to Mauritius (the chief naval station of the French in the Indian seas) which took possession of the island To counteract French influence in Persia the Governor-General opened negotiations with the kingdoms that lay near the north western frontier of the British Indian territories Embassies were accordingly sent by him to the Punjab, Sind, Afghanistan and Persia.

Napoleonic
War

Acquisition
of Mauritius

Embassies
to north
western
Kingdoms

Revival of the Sikhs under Ranjit Singh—The most important of these kingdoms was that of the Sikhs in the Punjab, who were fast growing powerful under their great chief, Ranjit Singh. We have seen how the Sikhs, after the death of their

Struggles
between the
Sikhs and
Ahmad Shah
Abdali

leader, Banda formed themselves into small bands called *Misls*, and continued to resist their persecutors, the Muhammadans. They came for a time under Ahmad Shah Abdali, when that chief conquered the Punjab but after the third battle of Panipat, when Ahmad Shah Abdali returned to Afghanistan, the Sikhs rose and made themselves masters of nearly the whole province. To strengthen themselves they built a large number of forts, and began to avenge their wrongs on the Musalmans with great cruelty. When Ahmad Shah heard this, he sent his general to the Punjab, but the Sikhs defeated him (1762). Ahmad returned again and again to the Punjab to punish the rebels, but on his approach the Sikhs would retire to their forts, only to come back and recover their position as soon as the Afghan chief would turn his back. Thus they remained practically masters of the Punjab. But unfortunately the *Misls* were disunited amongst themselves, and often carried on war against one another. It was reserved for Ranjit Singh who was the leader of one of these *Misls*, to unite most of them into a powerful Sikh Confederacy. Ranjit was born in 1780, and was made governor of

Ranjit
Singh the
Lion of the
Punjab

Khalsa
army

In 1808 Lord Minto sent Mr Metcalfe (afterwards Sir Charles and Lord Metcalfe) on an embassy to Ranjit to settle this affair as well as to establish amicable relations with that chief. A treaty was concluded, by which Ranjit bound himself to remain friendly to the British Government and not to encroach upon the rights of the Cis-Sutlej states which now came under the British protection. To the credit of the Sikh chief be it said, that he remained true to his promise as long as he lived.

Treaty of Amritsar (between the English and Ranjit)

Lord Hastings departs from the policy of Non-Intervention—Lord Minto left India in 1813 and was succeeded by the Earl of Moira, better known by his later title of Marquis of Hastings. On him fell the task of undoing the mischiefs that had resulted from the non intervention policy of his predecessors, and this involved him in three great wars.

The Nepal War—The first war he had to wage was the Nepal War. The Gurkhas, who had established their sovereignty in Nepal about 1768, had for some time past been encroaching on the British territories to the south of their kingdom. Lord Minto had remonstrated with them in vain, and no other alternative was left to Hastings than to compel them to come to terms by force of arms. War was accordingly declared in 1814. The whole Gurkha army did not exceed 12,000 men and had no artillery, yet they fought with great valour, and successfully opposed the British advance for some time. But at last General Ochterlony captured their hill forts and approached their capital. The Gurkhas were thus forced to sue for peace. By the treaty of Sagaul

Aggressions of Nepal on British India

General Ochterlony

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Struggles
between the
Sikhs and
Ahmad Shah
Abdali

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of Nepal on
British
India

General
Ochterlony

Treaty of Sagauli (1816), the territories of Nepal were reduced to their present dimensions and the English obtained the territory which now embraces the hill stations of Simla, Nainital and Mussooree

Part of Nepal annexed. The Pindari war—Lord Hastings now turned his attention to the Pindaris. Some of their leaders the most noted among whom were Chitoo and Karim, had become very powerful, their outrage and violence could no longer be tolerated and peace of the country required their immediate suppression. To crush them Hastings collected one of the strongest British armies ever seen in India. The Pindaris were simultaneously attacked from the north and the south and were utterly crushed (1817). Many, however, threw themselves on the mercy of the British Government, and settled down as peaceful cultivators.

Chitoo and Karim. The Last Mahratta War—In the same year in which the Pindaris were crushed the Mahratta powers the Peshwa, the Bhonsla and Holkar, again rose against the British. The Peshwa, Bajirao, had never been content under the terms imposed upon him by the treaty of Bassein, and had been trying ever since to free himself from the yoke. Failing to bring to a better mind Lord Hastings compelled him to sign a new treaty in 1817, by which his power was still more curtailed. This treaty exasperated him, and he prepared to make war on the British Government. The British Resident at Poona, the Hon. ble Mountstuart Elphinstone, discovering some thing of what was going on, withdrew to Karkh, whither he had ordered up a British regiment from Bombay. The Peshwa attacked him there in November, 1817,

but was driven off. He fled from Poona, but being hotly pursued and again defeated, was at last forced to surrender to the British (1818). A few days after Bajī Rao's defeat at Kīrki, Appa Saheb who had usurped the throne of Nagpur, attacked the British Resident at his court who lived at Sitabaldī. But the place was gallantly defended by the British sepoy's against enormous odds, and all the hopes of Appa Saheb were frustrated. Holkar's troops had also been induced by the Peshwa's agents to march against the British. But they were totally defeated at Mehīdpur in December, 1817.

Battle of
Kīrki

Appa Saheb

Battle of
Sitabaldī

Battle of
Mehīdpur

Results of the Last Mahratta War—Thus in two months, the Mahratta power was completely broken. The dominions of the Peshwa were annexed to the British empire, and Bajī Rao was allowed to retire to Bithur, near Cawnpur, on a yearly pension of 8 lakhs of rupees. Appa Saheb, after various turns of fortune died in obscurity. An infant of the Bhonsla family was set on the throne of Nagpur, but the administration was placed under the British Resident. Holkar entered into a subsidiary alliance with the British and abandoned all claims upon the Rajput states.

Peshwa's
dominions
annexed

Fate of
Appa Saheb.

Holkara
feudatory

Lord Hastings completes the work of Wellesley the British Power becomes Paramount—Thus was completed the work that Wellesley had been forced to leave unfinished. The campaigns of 1817-18 crushed the Mahratta and the Pindari powers, and thus removed the last obstacles in the way of the British suzerainty in India. Henceforth the British became the acknowledged masters of India, and there remained no other power, either European or native, to question their dominant authority.

CHAPTER III

INDIA UNDER THE EAST INDIA COMPANY

Consolidation of British power in India

What policy is adopted after the establishment of the British suzerainty—The triumphs of Lord Hastings were followed by peace throughout India and nothing now remained but to consolidate the empire. This work of consolidation meant, first the crushing and destroying of all germs of future trouble and disaffection within the country and secondly, the preventing of dangers from without. The first object could be attained chiefly by elevating the moral and intellectual character of the people by reforming abuses in the administration and by suppressing the mutinous spirit while the second object could be gained principally by strengthening the frontiers and the military defences of the country. The policy of all the subsequent Governors General has been directed towards the attainment of these two ends.

Lord Amherst—On the departure of Lord Hastings in 1823 Mr Adam senior member of the Council acted as Governor General till the arrival of Earl Amherst seven months after. The most important events in the administration of Lord Amherst were a war with the frontier kingdom of Burma and the capture of Bharatpur.

The first Burmese war—In the middle of the eighteenth century an adventurer from Pegu called

Measures of
consolidation

Adam

Alompra, founded a powerful dynasty at Ava, which, after having subjugated the whole of Burma and conquered the independent kingdom of Assam, began to encroach upon the British territories. The remonstrances of the British were treated with scorn by the king of Burma, and Lord Amherst was at last forced to declare war against him. The war lasted from 1824 to 1826, and caused heavy loss to the British in men and money on account of the natural difficulties and unhealthy climate of the country. At last the king of Burma was forced to come to terms. He signed a treaty at Yandabu in 1826 by which he ceded to the British Assam, Arakan and Tenasserim and agreed to pay a crore of rupees towards the expenses of the war.

Alompra
dynasty of
Ava

Burmese
incursions

Treaty of
Yandabu

Annexation
of Assam &c

Capture of Bharatpur—In 1825 the Raja of Bharatpur died, and his infant son was recognised as Raja by the British Government. But a cousin of the infant set him aside, and seized the throne. Lord Combermere, who was sent by Lord Amherst against the usurper, stormed the hitherto impregnable fort of Bharatpur in January 1826 and reinstated the deposed prince. The capture of this strong fort (which they had failed to take in 1805) greatly increased the prestige of the British arms in the eyes of the native princes and people.

Revolution
at
Bharatpur

Effect of the
capture of
Bharatpur

Lord William Bentinck's Victories are Victories of Peace—Lord Amherst left Calcutta in February, 1828 and his successor Lord William Bentinck, arrived in the July following, Mr Butterworth Bayley, senior member of the Council, acting as Governor General in the meanwhile. In Bentinck, India

Bayley.

Bentinck's
reform
policy

found a ruler 'who never forgot that the end of government is the welfare of the governed.' His administration was not marked by any of those brilliant victories which had distinguished the rule of some of his predecessors. Indeed no wars now remained to be fought, and Bentinck was free to carry out those social and administrative reforms which have made his name so dear to us.

Annexation
of Cachar
and Coorg

The benefits of the British Rule extended to Cachar, Coorg and Mysore.—The only instances of territorial acquisition during Lord Bentinck's incumbency were the annexations of the small principalities of Cachar and Coorg, the former in 1830, and the latter in 1834. The people of Cachar accepted the British rule of their own accord, while Coorg was placed under the British administration to save its people from the frightful misrule of its Raja. Bentinck was also compelled to interfere in the affairs of Mysore, which had fallen into great disorder on account of the wasteful extravagance of its Raja. The Raja was pensioned off in 1831, and the state was managed by British officers till 1881 when it was restored to native rule.

Mysore
protected

Bentinck's social reforms.—Bentinck tried not only to better the administration of the country, but also to effect the social and intellectual advancement of the people. One of his most famous measures was the abolition of the *Sati* rite. *Sati* means a chaste wife. The term is specifically applied to the woman who burns herself on the funeral pyre of her deceased husband. This practice of self-immolation had been in vogue among Hindu widows for a very long time,

Sati

and a number of them died in this way every year. In 1829, Lord William Bentinck prohibited the custom and declared it to be a criminal offence to aid and abet a *Sati*. In the same year he appointed Major Sleeman as Commissioner for the extirpation of the *Thugs*. These were a fraternity of assassins who travelled in bands, disguised as merchants or pilgrims, and strangled and robbed travellers, whenever they got an opportunity. The efforts of Sleeman were attended with brilliant success and the Thugs were gradually exterminated from the whole country.

Abolition of
the *Sati* rite

Suppressor
of the
Thugs

Lord Bentinck also sought to reclaim some of the wild races of India. The Khonds of the Madras Presidency used to offer human sacrifices to the Earth Goddess. Bentinck gradually put a stop to the cruel rite and brought them under the influence of British civilisation. The Kols of Western Bengal were placed under a special Commissioner and became by degrees law abiding and prosperous.

Reclamation
of savages

Bentinck's administrative reforms.—The administrative reforms of Bentinck were no less important. He reduced the civil and military expenditure, remodelled some of the laws, and made a revenue settlement of the United Provinces. He introduced many improvements in judicial procedure and directed that henceforth the Vernaculars were to be used in judicial proceedings instead of Persian.

Revenue
settlement
of U P

Vernacular
used as
court
languages

Another memorable act of Bentinck was the admission of Indians into the higher ranks of the public service. Hitherto it had been the policy of the Government not to entrust the Indians with any responsible public employment. But in 1831 Bentinck

employ
ent of
Indians in
higher
services

broke through the old policy, and appointed Indian judges with jurisdiction over civil suits. Since then there has been a steady increase of Indian officials in almost every department of the state and the satisfactory conduct of these officials has amply justified the wisdom of this liberal measure.

educational
inst

David Hare

Hindu
College

Serampur
missionaries

the Bengali
newspaper

Duff
General
Assembly's
Institution

Western education begins to spread among the people.—The success of the measure was greatly due to the new educational policy which Bentinck adopted in 1835 and which, by imparting higher education to the people, made them fitter to discharge any responsible duties entrusted to them. The earliest movement of the Government for the spread of education among the people dates from the year 1813 when it was decided that a lakh of rupees should be set apart every year for the advancement of learning. In 1816, during the administration of Lord Hastings, the renowned educationist, David Hare, with the help of the great reformer Raja Rammohan Ray (the founder of the *Brahma Samaj*), started the Hindu College at Calcutta to teach English literature and Western science to Hindu boys. About this time three great missionaries, Carey, Marshman and Ward established a college and a printing press at Serampur, and in 1818 issued a vernacular newspaper called *Samachar Darpan*. Early in the administration of Lord Bentinck, Alexander Duff was sent to Calcutta by the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland, and in 1830 this distinguished scholar and missionary established the General Assembly's Institution for imparting the highest form of knowledge, including instruction through the medium of the

English language The Government however had not yet recognised English as the best medium for educating Indian boys But liking for that language was daily growing among the people and the question was pressed earnestly on the attention of the Government Two hostile parties arose the Orientalists advocating the cause of Oriental languages and the Anglicists favouring Western education through the English language The famous author Lord Macaulay, who had come to India as the Legal Member of the Council and who was the President of the Board of Education about this time threw his whole weight on the side of latter and in 1835 Lord William Bentinck decided that the Government would hence forth spend the funds appropriated to education for the promotion of Western learning among the people In the same year the Medical College of Calcutta was founded to teach the science of medicine as it was taught in Europe

Orientalists
vs
Anglicists

Medical
College

The Company's Monopoly of the Eastern Trade abolished —The East India Company's Charter had been renewed last in 1813 when the Company was deprived of its monopoly of trade with India though the trade to China was still left in its hands As this Charter was to expire in 1834 a new Charter was granted in 1833 by which the Company was compelled to give up its China trade also From this time the Court of Directors became a body of administrators only, and thus could devote their whole attention to the Government of the country

Renewal of
Charter
1813 and
1833

Sir Charles Metcalfe —Lord William Bentinck left India in 1835 and was succeeded by Sir Charles

Metcalfe who acted as provisional Governor General till the arrival of Lord Auckland in 1836 Sir Charles' short tenure of office is memorable on account of the complete freedom he granted to the press in India

Free Press

Lord Auckland seeks to establish influence in Afghanistan as a check to Russian advance — The reforms of Lord William Bentinck greatly strengthened the British rule in India by securing peace and good order throughout the country But the attention of the Government was soon drawn to affairs in Central Asia where the Russians had been for some time steadily increasing their power and influence Thus was taken by some British politicians as a menace to the safety of the British Indian empire It was therefore thought necessary to establish friendly relations with states lying about the north western frontier in order that they might serve as bulwarks against the approach of Russia As a result of Lord Minto's negotiations Ranjit Singh of the Punjab and the Muhammadan rulers of Sind called Amirs were in alliance with the British But Afghanistan was no longer under Shah Shuja the Durani Chief to whom Lord Minto had sent his embassy He was now a refugee at Ludhiana under British protection and the throne of Kabul was occupied by Dost Muhammad the head of the powerful Barakzai tribe Lord Auckland sent an envoy to Dost Muhammad in 1837 The Afghan chief seemed to be willing to promise the British everything if only the latter would help him to recover Peshawar which had been taken from him by Ranjit Singh But as Ranjit was a friend, the British Government did not think it proper to interfere in the

Russian
advance in
Central Asia

Auckland's
policy

Shah Shuja

Dost
Muhammad

matter The result was that the British envoy had to return unsuccessful, while a Russian mission was cordially entertained by Dost Muhammad Lord Auckland, therefore, resolved to depose Dost Muhammad and restore Shah Shuja to the throne of his ancestors

The first campaign against the Afghans is followed by a disaster — War was accordingly declared in 1838 Dost Muhammad surrendered after a brave struggle, and was sent as a state prisoner to Calcutta Shah Shuja was set up in his place, and a British force remained in Afghanistan to restore order But the Afghans could ill brook the domination of a ruler who was thrust upon them by the arms of the English whom they hated There was a rising in 1841 and the British political agent at Kabul was assassinated The rebels, headed by Akbar Khan, son of Dost Muhammad, gradually increased in number, till the whole nation seemed to be up in arms At this crisis, the British officers at Kabul thought it proper to leave the place, and in January, 1842, the British troops set off to make their way, as best they could, back to India The bitter cold of the snowy defiles through which their path lay and the constant attacks of the ferocious Afghans, who hovered round, made this march a most disastrous one There was but one survivor who struggled through, besides a few, who were taken prisoners by the Afghans, out of an army (including followers) of more than 15 000 men

First Afghan War.

Insurrection at Kabul

Akbar Khan.

Disastrous march of the British army

Lord Ellenborough brings the Afghan War to a successful close — Shortly after this terrible disaster.

Lord Auckland was relieved by Lord Ellenborough, who despatched a second army to Afghanistan to retrieve British honour. Kabul was soon re-occupied, its great bazar was blown up, and the British prisoners were rescued. After this, the British troops withdrew from Afghanistan, leaving Dost Muhammad to be its ruler again. Shah Shuja had already been murdered by the rebels.

Sind annexed—Shortly after the close of the Afghan War, it was decided to punish the Amirs of Sind, who had been found guilty of corresponding with the enemies of the British (though the evidence on which they were condemned has been considered insufficient by many competent judges). In 1843, the Sind troops were twice defeated by Sir Charles Napier at Miani and at Haidarabad, and Sind was annexed to the Bombay Presidency.

The Gwalior War—In the same year, contest for the guardianship of the ruling Sindhua, who was then a minor, called for British interference at Gwalior. The Gwalior army opposed the advance of the British, but was defeated at the battles of Maharajpur and Punmar. A treaty was concluded by which the regency was entrusted to a council, the troops of Sindhua were reduced, and a subsidiary army, disciplined by British officers, was created, under the name of the Gwalior Contingent.

Lord Hardinge—In 1844, Lord Ellenborough was succeeded by Sir Henry (afterwards Lord) Hardinge, a veteran warrior who had fought in the war against Napoleon Bonaparte and had lost an arm. Under him, the British were first drawn into war

British
honour
retrieved.

Battles of
Miani and
Haidarabad
1

Battles of
Maharajpur
and Punmar
1
Gwalior
Contingent
1

with the one remaining great native power in India, viz, the Sikhs

The First Sikh War —The great Ranjit Singh died in 1839, and there remained no one in the Punjab capable of controlling the powerful Khalsa army he had organised. The army had the upper hand in everything and a series of murders and atrocities followed, too horrible to dwell upon. At last, Dulip Singh, the youngest son of Ranjit, was placed on the throne, under the regency of his mother. But the army grew more and more unruly, and their increasing demands could not be satisfied. Just to get rid of them, the Regent at length ordered them to invade the British territories. The Sikh army, accordingly crossed the Sutlej in December, 1845, and the First Sikh War began. The British army was under the Commander-in-Chief Sir Hugh Gough, who was accompanied by the Governor General. Within a short time, four battles were fought at Mudki, Feroz Shah, Aliwal, and Sobraon. On each occasion both sides lost heavily, but the British came off victorious, and in their last victory the Sikhs were driven across the Sutlej, and the Punjab lay at the mercy of the victors. The British now pushed on to Lahore and dictated a treaty to the Sikh Government (January, 1846). Dulip Singh was recognised as Maharaja, the Sikh army was cut down, and the land between the Beas and the Sutlej (called the Jalandhar Doab) was annexed by the British. A crore and a half of rupees was demanded by the British as an indemnity for the expense of the war. But as the Sikh Government was not in a position to pay

Death of
Ranjit

Khalsa
army

Dulip Singh.

Sikh inva-
sion of
British
India

Sir Hugh
Gough.

Battles of
Mudki
Feroz Shah,
Aliwal and
Sobraon.

Annexation
of Jalandhar
Doab

Kashmir
sold to Golab
Singh.

more than half a crore, Golab Singh, Governor of Kashmir, agreed to pay the rest, provided he was recognised as the independent sovereign of Kashmir. His offer was accepted, and Kashmir again became a separate kingdom. At the request of the Sikh Government, a British force was left at Lahore for the protection of the hoy Maharaja. Hardinge and Gough were both raised to the peerage for their gallant services.

Measures of
Public
utility

P.W.
Department

Lord Dalhousie one of the greatest rulers of India —Hardinge left India in 1848 and was succeeded by Lord Dalhousie, one of the greatest of the British rulers of India. Like Bentinck, Dalhousie set his heart upon improving the moral and material condition of the Indian people, and like Bentinck, too, he achieved grand success in this direction. Every branch of the administration felt the influence of his *reforming hand*. The opening of the great Ganges Canal, the inauguration of the Railway and the Electric Telegraph, introduction of the Half anna Postage system, and the organisation of the Public Works Department, which have done so much in the way of facilitating agriculture, commerce, and communication by covering the country with a net work of roads and canals, are some of the works of this great administrator, for which his memory will be ever gratefully cherished by every Indian. But unfortunately he could not devote his undivided attention to these measures of peace. He was compelled, against his will, to engage in two wars and adopt a Policy of Annexation.

The Second Sikh War—The first war that he

had to wage was the Second Sikh War, which broke out shortly after his arrival. Discontent had been seething beneath the surface for sometime past in the Punjab. The Queen Mother had been intriguing against the British, while the disbanded Sikh soldiery had been burning with a desire to be revenged upon their victors. The rebellion of Mulraj, governor of Multan, who treacherously murdered two British officers in April 1848, served as the spark to set the whole country in a conflagration. While the British were besieging Multan, Sher Singh, the Sikh general who had been sent by the Sikh Government to co-operate with them openly joined the rebels. But Multan surrendered in January, 1849, and Mulraj was taken prisoner. A few days after, a sanguinary battle was fought at Chillianwala between Sher Singh and Lord Gough, in which the British sustained a heavy loss. But shortly after this disaster Lord Gough obtained a decisive victory in the battle of Gujarat, and the Sikh army was totally destroyed. On the 29th March Lord Dalhousie issued a proclamation, annexing the Punjab to the British dominions. Maharaja Duleep Singh was granted a pension.

Rebellion of
Mulraj

Sher Singh.

Battle of
Chillianwala

Battle of
Gujrat

Annexation
of the
Punjab

The Second Burmese War—Lord Dalhousie was also forced to declare war against the king of Burma, who ill-used the British merchants and insulted the British officer who was sent to remonstrate. The war broke out in 1852, and after a few months' fighting, the Burmans sought peace by the cession of the province of Pegu.

Annexation
of Pegu

Dalhousie adopts a policy of Annexation to

secure Good Rule to the Governed — Besides these two annexations which were results of war other additions were also made to the Empire by Dalhousie. Thus he did with the intention of securing good government to the governed. He was convinced that the British rule was better for the people of India than the Government of the native princes. He would not therefore let slip any fair opportunity to substitute the British administration in place of the native. In the case of native states created by the British Government he would not recognize the right of an adopted son to succeed to the government though he would allow him to inherit the private property of his adoptive father. In all such cases the state must be held liable to the British Government. The Raja of Satara died without a son in 1818. His death bed adoption was set aside and the state was brought under British rule. In 1856 Jhansi and Nagpur were incorporated with the British territories in a similar way on the failure of natural heirs.

The Nizam had to pay certain subsidies for the maintenance of the Contingent Force which he had to keep for the British service. But he could not pay his dues regularly and the arrears amounted to many lakhs of rupees. As a security for punctual payment in future the Nizam made over Berar to the British Government in 1853.

Oudh was annexed in 1856. The Nawabs of Oudh though loyal to the British Government had been for a long time guilty of misrule and oppression. Repeated warnings had been useless and at last

Political
maxim of
Dalhousie

Doctrine of
Lapse

Annexation
of Satara
Jhansi and
Nagpur

Cession of
Berar by
Nizam

Misrule in
Oudh

Dalhousie thought it to be his solemn duty to put a stop to the sufferings of the people of Oudh by placing them under direct British rule. This was done by proclamation, and a liberal pension was granted to Wajid Ali, the last Nawab of Oudh.

Annexation
of Oudh

Wajid Ali.

Dalhousie abolishes certain pensions and titles—Dalhousie applied his doctrine of 'absorption by lapse' to certain pensions, which were burdens upon the public treasury. Baji Rao, the ex Peshwa, enjoyed his large pension till his death in 1855, but after his death, the claim of his adopted son, Nana Shahab, to the pension was rejected. In the same year, the titular Nawab of the Carnatic and the titular Raja of Tanjore died without heirs, and Dalhousie declared their titles and pensions to be extinct with them.

The last
Peshwa

Material and Intellectual progress of the country under Dalhousie—But however engrossed he might be by these vexed political questions, Lord Dalhousie never, for a moment, lost sight of the great aim of his administration,—the moral and intellectual elevation and the material progress of the people entrusted to his care. The same year 1853, which saw so many annexations, also witnessed the introduction of his great measures of public utility, viz, the Railway, the Telegraph, and the Cheap Postage. He took a keen interest in the education of the Indian people, and at the suggestion of Mr Bethune, the Legal Member of the Council and the founder of the girls' school in Calcutta called after his name, officially recognised the importance of female education in this country. In 1854, he received the celebrated Des-

Dalhousie's
reforms

Bethune
College

Educational
Despatch of
1854

patch from England, which contained a scheme of education for all India on a wide and comprehensive basis. It suggested the establishment of schools and colleges of a higher character, the foundation of a University at each Presidency, and the introduction of the system of grants in aid to all schools without regard to caste or creed. Lord Dalhousie immediately took steps to carry out the scheme, and organised a distinct Department of Public Instruction with a Director at its head.

Department
of Public
Instructions

The Company's Charter renewed for the last time.—The Charter of the East India Company was renewed for the last time in 1853, not for any definite period, but only for so long as the Parliament should think fit. Under the new arrangements, Bengal was created a separate government under a Lieutenant-Governor, thus relieving the Governor-General from a large amount of his work. In the place of nomination, the healthy principle of competitive examinations for admission into the Civil Service of India was now adopted.

Lieutenant-
Governor-
ship of
Bengal

Competition
in C. S.
Examina-
tion

Lord Canning.—Lord Dalhousie left India in 1856, utterly broken down by the incessant toils of his eight years' administration in this country. The next Governor General was Lord Canning. His administration is memorable for the Sepoy mutiny,—the greatest revolt that ever threatened the British power in India.

What led to the Sepoy Mutiny.—However quiet and peaceful things might appear outwardly at the time of the arrival of Lord Canning, one who looked deeper could detect a wide-spread feeling of

discontent among the sepoys, specially among those of Bengal. The Bengal sepoys were mainly composed of high caste Hindus who were very sensitive on everything that concerned their caste or religion. During the second Burmese War, a body of these sepoys refused to go to Burma by sea and this sort of insubordination was by no means unfrequent. In 1856 the Government passed an order to the effect that in future no recruit was to be taken who would not go wherever he should be ordered. This created an impression that the Government was no longer going to respect the caste or the prejudices of the people. Whispers went round that the intention of the English was to convert the inhabitants wholesale to Christianity. The improvements that had been recently introduced, such as the construction of railway and telegraph lines and the spread of English education probably served to confirm this suspicion in the minds of the uneducated and the unintelligent. There was no want of designing men to fan the flame. Men who had any grievance, real or supposed, against the British Government seized upon this opportunity to revenge themselves. Among these men were some of those who had been deprived of their states or pensions by the annexation policy of Dalhousie. Nana Saheb the adopted son of Baji Rao is said to have sent emissaries to various parts of Northern India to spread disaffection while the discharged soldiers of the pensioned Nawab of Oudh were naturally watching an opportunity to create disturbances. An impetus was further given to the spirit of rebellion by a current prophecy, which

Mutinous
spirit of the
Bengal
sepoys

Ignorance
vs
Progress

Annexation
Policy of
Dalhousie

Prophecy
about the
Company's
rule-

Greased
cartridge

assigned only a hundred years' rule to the East India Company and as it was the hundredth year since the Battle of Plassey it was fondly believed that the Company's rule was coming to an end. The spark that produced the conflagration was supplied by the story of the greased cartridge. A new sort of rifle came into use early in the year 1857 and a rumour got abroad that the cartridges of those rifles were greased with the fat of cows and pigs, with a view to defiling the Hindu and the Muhammadan sepoys alike so that their conversion to Christianity might be easy. No warning could remove the absurd idea and signs of the growing mutinous spirit were daily visible especially among the Bengal sepoys. Houses were set on fire officers were disobeyed and discipline began to disappear.

Character
of the
Mutiny

Who joined in the Mutiny—Fortunately however the mass of the people remained loyal. The Mutiny indeed was mere military mutiny though turned to political account here and there by certain disaffected chiefs like Nana Saheb and others. Even all the native soldiers did not join in the revolt. The Bombay and the Madras sepoys remained on the whole true to the British Raj. The Punjab was kept loyal by the able measures of its Chief Commissioner Sir John Lawrence and the Sikh chiefs stood nobly by the Paramount Power. None of the great feudatory chiefs joined the mutineers while the common people even in the affected districts did not show any sympathy for the rebel sepoys.

Loyalty of
the people

Outbreak of the Mutiny—Symptoms of mutiny first appeared at Barrackpur and Berhampur. But

they were promptly suppressed, and the offending regiments were disbanded. The actual outbreak of the Mutiny occurred at Meerut on the 10th May, 1857. The sepoys stationed there rose in open rebellion, cut down the officers and all other Europeans they met, set fire to the houses and then rushed off in a body to Delhi. The Muhammadans of Delhi joined the mutineers and hailed Bahadur Shah, the titular Moghul Emperor, as their sovereign. The mutiny then spread like wild fire from station to station, till the greater portion of Northern India was ablaze. The same story was repeated everywhere, the sepoys rose, killed all the Europeans whom they could lay their hands on, broke open the jail, looted the treasury and then went off to some centre of revolt, usually Delhi or Lucknow.

Mutiny at Meerut

and at Delhi

Bahadur Shah II

Mutineers' method

The Mutiny at Cawnpur—In June, the sepoys at Cawnpur mutinied and set out for Delhi, but Nana Sahib who lived at Bithur near by, dissuaded them from going, and put himself at their head. After fruitlessly besieging the Europeans in their hastily constructed entrenchment for three weeks, Nana promised them a safe passage to Allahabad by boats. But as soon as they were embarked, a murderous fire was opened upon them from the banks. Very few escaped, the rest of the men were killed on the spot, and the women and children, to the number of 125 were imprisoned.

Nana Sahib

His treachery

The Mutiny in Oudh and Rohilkhand and in Central India—The rebellious spirit was more wide spread in Oudh and Rohilkhand than in any other province. The Begum and many Talukdars of Oudh

actively co-operated with the mutineers while the Muhammadans of Bareilly rose under Khan Bahadur a descendant of the old royal family of Rohilkhand. The mutineers besieged the Residency at Lucknow whither Sir Henry Lawrence the Chief Commissioner of Oudh had retired with all the European inhabitants of the place and a few loyal native troops. But though Sir Henry was killed early in July the heroic garrison held out under all sorts of hardships and against enormous odds. In Central India the disaffected Rani of Jhansi took advantage of the disturbances to attempt the recovery of the power of which she had been deprived by Lord Dalhousie. She put herself at the head of the mutineers at Jhansi and proclaimed her independence.

Suppression of the Mutiny—The wonderful tact heroism and promptitude with which the British ably seconded by the loyal Indians suppressed the formidable rising evoked admiration from all. On the 15th July 1857 Nana Saheb's troops were totally defeated by General Havelock who reached Cawnpur two days after. But the General found on his arrival that the miscreant Nana had fled the day before after butchering all the European women and children he had kept as prisoners and throwing their bleeding remains into a well. In September Delhi was taken by storm after a siege of three months but the brave General Nicholson fell fighting at the head of the storming party. The old Moghul emperor Bahadur Shah was sent as a state prisoner to Rangoon and his two sons and a grandson were shot. A few days after the capture of Delhi Generals Havelock

General
Havelock

Cawnpur
Nana Saheb

Recovery of
Delhi

Fate of the
last Great
Moghul

and Outram made their way into Lucknow, and relieved the brave little garrison of the Residency. But as the relieving force was too small it only added to the number of the besieged, and it was not till a second force arrived under Sir Colin Campbell (afterwards Lord Clyde) that the Lucknow garrison was finally delivered (November 1857). In May 1858, Sir Colin took Bareilly and by the close of the same year, peace and order were completely restored in Oudh and Rohilkhand. In the meanwhile Central India had been reduced to order by Sir Hugh Rose whose most formidable antagonists were the Rani of Jhansi and Tantia Topi, a Mahratta Brahman of high military talents. The heroic Rani fell fighting bravely at the head of her troops in June 1858. Tantia being repeatedly defeated fled and cleverly eluded the British pursuit for a long time but at last he was betrayed by one of his followers in April 1859 and was hanged. Nana

Relief of Lucknow

Sir Colin Campbell

Capture of Bareilly

Sir Hugh Rose

Tantia Topi

Rani of Jhansi killed

Fate of Tantia and Nana

Assumption
of direct
government
by the crown

The first
Viceroy

State for India, aided by a Council From this time forward, the Governor-General has been the representative of the British Sovereign in India, and has been styled *Viceroy and Governor General* Lord Canning accordingly became the first Viceroy

The Queen's Proclamation—The assumption of the Government by the Crown was announced to the people of India on the 1st November, 1858, by a Proclamation of Her late Majesty Queen Victoria, which is justly looked upon as the Magna Charta of India It was translated into all the Vernaculars and read aloud in every district of the country. It confirmed all existing treaties, usages, rights and dignities and granted a general amnesty to all except those who had directly taken part in the late massacres It assured the people that the British Government had no desire to tamper with their caste or religious faith, and that due regard would "be paid to the ancient rights, ways, and customs of India" It also declared the principle of justice to be the guiding policy of the British rule "It is our further will" ran the gracious words of Her Majesty, "that so far as may be, our subjects, of whatever race or creed, be freely and impartially admitted to offices in our service, the duties of which they may be qualified by their education, ability and integrity" to discharge.

Magna
Charta of
India.

Principles of
British rule.

Justice and
equality



QUEEN VICTORIA—(*Empress*).

CHAPTER IV. *

INDIA UNDER THE CROWN

Modern India

Modern India —We have now arrived at a new epoch of our history After the storm of the Sepoy Mutiny had blown over, Modern India, the India of the present day in which we live, stood revealed in all her glory and strength The new forces, which had been silently at work since the days of Lord William Bentinck, and which had received such a great impetus from the reforms of Lord Dalhousie at last began to tell on the national life of the Indians The closer union between the East and the West,—the leading characteristic of Modern India —commenced, and the Sepoy Mutiny appeared to be like one of those struggles that generally precede a combination of two unlike elements The two main agents that have helped to bring about this fusion are the famous Educational Despatch of 1854, and the Queen's Proclamation of 1858 The one is the great Intellectual Charter, the other the great Political Charter of India The former, leading to the foundation of the Universities at the Presidency towns in 1857, has enriched the minds of the educated classes with Western thoughts and ideas, while the latter throwing open all the privileges of the State to the people without distinction of caste or creed, has

Blending of
the East and
the West

Two Great
Charters of
India

Their effects

satisfied the aspirations of the educated Indian youths and established a friendly and affectionate relation between the rulers and the ruled

Another characteristic of Modern India is the establishment of new relations between the Paramount Power and the Native States. The Queen's Proclamation recognised the right of adoption by the native princes on failure of direct heirs and thus put an end to the Lapse Policy of Dalhousie which had created so much distrust in the minds of the native princes. Dalhousie had adopted the policy of Annexation to extend the blessings of British administration to native territories. But British statesmen now perceived that the natives appreciated reforms better when they were introduced by their own rulers than when they were thrust upon them from outside. So a new policy was adopted namely that of cultivating friendly relations with the native princes and helping them with advice and co-operation to bring about necessary reforms. The British Government still reserve the right of interfering with the native states in cases of maladministration but in such cases the state is not annexed but only the offending prince is removed and his throne is conferred on a worthier successor. The policy has created a class of loyal and contented feudatory princes who are justly looked upon as colleagues and partners of the British administrators in India.

New policy
towards the
Native
states

Friendly
relations
with native
princes

Indian
Councils Act
of 1861

Some of the most important and familiar institutions of the present day also date from this period. In 1861 non-official members Indian and European

were for the first time admitted into the Legislative Councils of India. This marked the first stage in the introduction of representative government into India, though the Additional Members were all nominated at the discretion of the Governor General. Rules were made by Lord Canning assigning to each member of the Executive Council the charge of a separate department of the administration. Thus the Council was practically turned into a Cabinet with the Governor-General at its head. Next year, High Courts were established at the presidency towns by amalgamating the Sadar Adalats with the Supreme Courts.

High Court.

The Penal Code, which had originally been drafted by Lord Macaulay, was passed into law in 1860. It gave the same set of criminal laws to all people in India, and thus emphasised the British principle that all are alike in the eye of the law. The Codes of Civil and Criminal Procedure, which regulate the judicial proceedings of British India, came into operation in 1861. A great step for the protection of tenants against the oppression of landlords was taken by the passing of the Rent Act of 1859, which gave occupancy right to a tenant who continuously held the same land for a period of twelve years.

Penal Code.

Civil and Criminal Procedure Codes.

Rent Act of 1859.

The troubles of the Mutiny had disorganised the finance of the country to a great extent. To restore the public credit Mr. James Wilson, the well known Secretary to the Treasury in England, was appointed Financial Member of the Governor General's Council in 1859. He imposed several new taxes, the most important of which was the income tax levied for the first time in 1860. Another important financial

Mr Wilson, the finance minister.

Income Tax.

Paper
Currency.

measure was the introduction of the state paper currency into India

Departure of Canning—Lord Canning left India in 1862, and died shortly after his arrival in England. He was a cool headed statesman, and never lost his presence of mind during the terrible days of the Mutiny. The measures he adopted for the pacification of the country after the rebellion were marked by so *much moderation and leniency* that he obtained the scornful epithet of "Clemency Canning" which is, however, remembered by posterity only to the honour of the kind-hearted ruler.

Clemency
Canning.

Lord Elgin—The next Governor General and Viceroy was Lord Elgin who died shortly after his arrival in India (1863). The only event worth mentioning in his administration was the war with the Muhammadan fanatics, known as the Wahabi, of the north-west frontier. An expedition was sent against them and their stronghold was destroyed. Sir William Denison, Governor of Madras, acted as Elgin's successor till the arrival of the new Governor-General, Sir John Lawrence, whose brilliant services as the administrator of the Punjab had won the admiration of all.

Wahabi
expedition.

Sir William
Denison.

Sir John Lawrence—Sir John landed in Calcutta early in 1864. He made Simla the ordinary summer residence of the India Government. The first important event of his viceroyalty was the Bhutan War. The British Government used to pay an annual subsidy to the state of Bhutan as a compensation for annexing the Dwaras, which the Bhutanese Government claimed. In spite of this arrangement, the

Simla.

Bhutan
War

Bhutanese made frequent incursions into these territories, and insulted the British envoy who was sent to remonstrate. A war followed, as the result of which the British possession of the Dwaras was confirmed (1865). The year 1866 witnessed a great famine in Orissa, which is said to have swept away about two millions of people. The Government appointed a famine commission, with the late Sir George Campbell as President and their inquiries laid the foundation of the humane policy which the Government of India have now adopted to combat famines in the country. The question of irrigation was warmly taken up and the result was the inauguration of a large number of irrigation works throughout India. Afghanistan had, for some time, been convulsed by a fratricidal war among the sons of Dost Muhammad who had died in 1863. Sir John refused to interfere in these disputes; but when at last Sher Ali, the son whom Dost had nominated to be his successor, succeeded in establishing himself on the throne, the Governor-General recognised him as Amir.

Orissa
famine.

Famine
Commission.

Afghan
affairs.

Sher Ali.

Lord Mayo.—In 1869, Lord Mayo succeeded Sir John Lawrence who was raised to the peerage on his return home. Lord Mayo held a conference with Sher Ali at Umballa, and thus strengthened friendly relations with the Afghan Government. He organised an Agricultural Department, and greatly developed the material resources of India by an immense extension of roads, canals and railways. It was he who introduced the system of Provincial Contracts described later on. Lord Mayo anxiously studied with his own eyes the wants of even the most outlying

Umballa
Durbar.

Agricultural
Department

Provincial
Contracts.

parts of the empire and reformed several of the most important branches of the administration. But unfortunately his noble career was cut short by a Musalman convict, who stabbed him while he was on a visit to the penal settlement at Port Blair in the Andaman islands for the purpose of inspecting the condition of the convicts with a view to improving, if possible, the treatment accorded to them.

Lord Northbrook—The successor of Lord Mayo was Lord Northbrook. He successfully averted a famine which threatened Bengal, by a vast organisation of state relief. A charge of having attempted to poison the British Resident at his court was brought against the Gaekwar of Baroda and a mixed commission consisting of British Judges and native princes was appointed to investigate into it. Though no definite pronouncement was made on this charge, the Gaekwar was deposed on a charge of general mismanagement. But in accordance with the new policy adopted by the British Government towards Native States explained before, the state was not annexed and a chief of the house was placed on the throne. In 1875, the late Emperor Edward VII, who was then Prince of Wales, visited this country, and was everywhere received with passionate demonstrations of joy and loyalty.

Lord Lytton—Lord Northbrook was succeeded in 1876 by Lord Lytton. On January 1, 1877, her late Majesty Queen Victoria was proclaimed Empress of India at a magnificent *darbar*, held at Delhi, the old capital of India, where all the great princes and chiefs of the country assembled, and which recalled

Assassination of Lord Mayo.

Famine averted

Trial of Gaekwar.

Gaekwar deposed

Visit of Edward VII.

Queen Victoria as the Empress of India.

to the minds of the Indians the great *Rajasuya sabha* of the ancient Hindu emperors. Thus was the first formal recognition of the position of the Sovereign of England as the Paramount Ruler of India. Unfortunately a terrible famine broke out about this time in Southern India. The Government aided by generous subscriptions in England did its best to mitigate the sufferings of the starving millions but the loss of life was dreadful. It was said that about five millions of people were swept away. Lord Lytton appointed a commission with Sir Richard Strachey as President to enquire into the whole subject of famine in India and to suggest means by which similar disaster in future might be prevented and relieved. As a result of the labour of this commission the administration of famine relief in this country was reduced to a system.

Madras
famine

Famine
Commission.

Lord Lytton passed the Vernacular Press Act and the Arms Act. The former imposed restrictions on Vernacular journals and the latter generally forbade the possession of arms by Indians without license.

Vernacular
Press Act
and Arms
Act

Another important event in the viceroyalty of Lord Lytton was the Second Afghan War. Sher Ali had for some time past been intriguing with Russia and refused to admit a British envoy to his country, while he received a Russian mission with honour. In 1878 Lord Lytton declared war against Sher Ali who fled to Turkestan and died there shortly afterwards. Yakub Khan the eldest son of the deceased chief came to terms with the British Government. By the treaty of Gandamak (1879) he agreed to receive a British Resident at Kabul and not to have

Second
Afghan War.

Its cause

Yakub
Khan

Treaty of
Gandamak

any diplomatic relations with Russia. He also ceded some frontier districts to the British, the result of which was the extension of British frontier, and formation of the province of British Baluchistan. But within a few months, Mr Cavagnar the British Resident, and his escort were treacherously murdered, and renewal of hostilities followed. Yakub was forced to abdicate and was deported to India while Sir Frederick Roberts (afterwards Lord Roberts, and Commander in Chief of the British Army) remained at Kabul in command of the British forces. At this juncture a change of ministry in England led to the resignation of Lord Lytton and the appointment of Lord Ripon as Viceroy (1880).

Lord Ripon—Lord Ripon was determined on peace. But Ayub Khan younger brother of Yakub Khan, was hostile to the British and defeated a British brigade at Maiwand. The disaster, however was soon retrieved by a magnificent march of General Roberts from Kabul to Kandahar and by the total rout of Ayub's army in September, 1880. Abdur Rahman, the eldest son of the eldest brother of Sher Ali, was then placed on the throne of Kabul and the British troops retired from Afghanistan.

Lord Ripon's liberal policy—The name of Lord Ripon is still cherished by the Indians for the large-hearted sympathy and the liberal policy which always marked his dealings with them. He sought to give the people a practical training in the art of administration, by introducing a system of Self Government by which the management of local affairs was entrusted to Boards locally elected. He appointed

British
Baluchistan,

Third
Afghan War,

Lord
Roberts,

Ayub Khan

Battle
Maiwand

Abdur
Rahman

Local Self
Government



LORD RIXON
(Bourne and Shepherd)

an Education Commission with a view to spreading popular instruction on a broader basis and by repealing the Vernacular Press Act allowed the native journals to discuss freely all public questions. He gave much attention to agriculture, and under his auspices was held a great International Exhibition in Calcutta for the purpose of giving an impetus to the industry of the country. It was he who matured the Bengal Tenancy Act which was passed by his successor, Lord Dufferin, in 1885 and which improved the Rent Act of 1859 by affording greater protection to the poor ryots of Bengal against any undue exaction of the Zaminders. In 1881, the adopted son of the late Maharaja of Mysore came of age and Lord Ripon restored the state, which had been under the management of the British since the time of Bentinck to the young prince thus illustrating the new liberal policy of the British Government towards the Native States.

Education
Commission.

Free Press.

Inter
national
Exhibition.Bengal
Tenancy ActRestoration
of Mysore.

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Education Commission.

Free Press

International Exhibition.

Bengal Tenancy Act

Restoration of Mysore.

In 1883 Lord Ripon's government tried to extend the jurisdiction of the Indian District Magistrates and Sessions Judges over the European residents, who had hitherto enjoyed the privilege of being tried only by their own countrymen. The Ilbert Bill (called after the name of its proposer, Mr Ilbert, the Law Member) which proposed the change was opposed by the bulk of the European community in India. After a hot controversy a compromise was arrived at, by which it was settled that the Indian Magistrates should exercise the new power but the Europeans might claim the privilege of being tried before them by a jury.

Ilbert Bill controversy.

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Ilbert Bill controversy.

Death of
Ripon.

Lord Ripon left India in 1884 amidst many demonstrations of popular esteem and affection. He died in 1909 but his name will not cease to be cherished by the Indians with reverence and gratitude for the warm sympathy with which he treated their aspirations.

Pindi
Durbar

Lord Dufferin — Lord Ripon was succeeded by Lord Dufferin. He confirmed the friendship with Afghanistan by entertaining the Amir, Abdur Rahman, at a grand *darbar* at Rawal Pindi in 1885. He also tried to strengthen the north western frontiers of India against any possible aggression on the part of the Russians who had now come to the confines of Afghanistan. A Boundary Commission was appointed in concert with Russia for the delimitation of the Afghan frontier towards Central Asia but unfortunately an affray took place between the Russians and the Afghans at Panjdeh which strained the relations between Russia and Great Britain for a time. This incident evoked an outburst of loyalty to the British throne among the Indian princes who came forward with offer of men and money in event of a war with Russia. But the Russians made concessions and the war was avoided.

Delimitation
of Frontier
boundaries

Affray at
Panjdeh

National
Congress

Annexation
of Burma.

In 1885 the first meeting of the Indian National Congress was held. In 1886 Lord Dufferin added the kingdom of Burma to the British Indian Empire. Thebaw the king of Burma was found guilty of intriguing with the French and of ill treating British subjects. War was declared against him, he was dethroned and removed to India and his kingdom was annexed. This extended the British frontier

in the east to the Salween and brought it to the borders of China and Siam. In the same year the fort of Gwalior, which had been in the possession of the English since the Mutiny, was given back to its hereditary chief, the Maharaja Sindhia. The next year saw the completion of the fiftieth year of the reign of her late Majesty the Queen Victoria, and a Jubilee was celebrated with great pomp and enthusiasm throughout India. Lord Dufferin retired in 1888 and was created Marquess of Dufferin and Ava.

Gwalior
restored

Golden
Jubilee

Larger employment of the Indians in the Public Service.—In 1870, Parliament passed a resolution that 'it is expedient that additional facilities should be given for the employment of the natives of India of proved merit and ability in the Civil Service of Her Majesty in India. The Governor General was empowered under this resolution to appoint Indians to higher posts without requiring them to pass the Civil Service Examination in England. Men appointed under this rule were called Statutory Civilians for whom Lord Lytton reserved one-fifth of the higher posts in the Service. But as complaints were heard that the rule was not working satisfactorily, a commission was appointed in the time of Lord Dufferin, which brought forward a scheme for larger employment of Indians in the Civil Service. It recommended that there should be three branches of the Service—(1) the Imperial Service, (2) the Provincial Service, and (3) the Subordinate Service. The first was reserved for those who pass the competitive examination in England, the second is open to all Indians of ability and includes many posts

Statutory
Civilians

Public
Service
Commission

which formerly belonged to the superior service only and the third is made up of all minor posts and is also filled by Indians

Anglo
Chinese
Treaty

Lord Lansdowne — Lord Lansdowne was the next Viceroy. The Tibetans invaded Sikkim in 1888 but they were defeated and in 1890 a treaty was made between the English and the Chinese by which the latter recognised the British protectorate over Sikkim and a trading mart was established at Yatung on the Tibetan frontier

Manipur
trouble

In 1892 there was trouble in Manipur. The *Senapati* of the state had deposed his brother the Raja and set up another brother as Regent. Mr. Quenton, the Chief Commissioner of Assam, went there with a body of Gurkhas to investigate into the matter and effect a settlement if possible. At a parley that followed Mr. Quenton and some of his officers were murdered. An expedition was accordingly sent against Manipur. The chief culprits including the *Senapati* were hanged and the Raja was deposed and deported to the Andamans. A scion of a distant branch of the royal family was placed on the throne and the state was taken under British management during the minority of the new Raja. This is another illustration of the new policy of the British Government towards the Native States.

Indian
Councils Act
of 1892

In the same year the Indian Councils Act was passed by the British Parliament giving the Universities, District and Municipal Boards and other public bodies the right to elect representatives to the Legislative Councils of the country. This was a distinct advance on the Councils Act of 1861.

as it replaced the principle of nomination adopted under the latter Act by that of election to a certain extent in appointing non official members Two other privileges were also conferred* by this Act The members were allowed to discuss the annual Budget and to put questions to the Government on matters of administration

In 1893 an important change was made in the military administration of the country Formerly the Commander in Chief in India had special command of the Bengal troops and exercised only a general control over the troops of Bombay and Madras each of which had a local commander in chief of its own This system of divided control led to much inconvenience though the ultimate military control rested with the Governor General in Council and the Commander in Chief in India To remove this inconvenience an Act was passed in 1893 which abolished the offices of the provincial commanders in chief extended the powers of the Commander in Chief in India to the whole of India and transferred the powers of military control so long exercised by the Governments of Bombay and Madras to the Governor General in Council India was divided into four territorial commands viz the Punjab Command the Bengal Command the Madras Command and the Bombay Command each under a Lieutenant General the whole being under the direct command of the Commander in Chief

Military reforms

Territorial Commands

In the administration of Lord Lansdowne much attention was given to the foreign relations of the country The question of strengthening the north west frontier specially came under discussion. Lord

Frontier Policy

Masterly inactivity

Forward
Policy

Scientific
Frontier
1

Sphere of
Influence
1

Durand
Convention

Imperial
Service
Troops

Frontier
trouble

Lawrence adopted the policy of "masterly inactivity" and would not push the frontier any further. Lord Lytton however, abandoned this policy and extended the frontier by the Treaty of Gandamak, as stated before to Baluchistan. This "forward policy" has had many advocates since. They are of opinion that the frontier should be extended still further till the western slopes of the mountains are included, so that the political frontier and the natural frontier may coincide. The discussion on the establishment of this "scientific frontier" naturally brought in the other question as to under whose "sphere of influence" the semi independent tribes living between the British and the Afghan territories should come. To settle this question Lord Lansdowne sent the Foreign Secretary, Sir Mortimer Durand to the Amir of Afghanistan in 1893 and an agreement was entered into by which the territories of the Mehtar or Chief of Chitral were brought more completely under the sphere of British influence.

The friendly relations between the British Government and the Native States were drawn closer in the time of Lord Lansdowne by the enrolment of the Imperial Service troops in the states of many native princes who were thus given a share in the honour and burden of the defence of the Empire.

Lord Elgin II—Lord Elgin succeeded Lord Lansdowne in 1894. He was the son of the second Viceroy, Lord Elgin. He had to undertake some frontier expeditions as a result of the policy of his predecessor. The Durand Convention was not agreeable to the frontier tribes as they suspected that the British

control would soon lead to the annexation of their territories, and in 1895 the British Agent at Chitral was besieged by a claimant for the Mehtership of Chitral. An expedition was sent to rescue him. The tribes were subdued. Chitral was permanently occupied by British troops and a road was made to it from Peshawar. This road however was taken by the frontier tribes as a sign that their worst fears were about to be confirmed and that the British Government had already begun to occupy their country permanently. The Waziris commenced hostilities by attacking the British in the Tochi valley and were joined by other tribes. The next important incident was the attack made by the Afridis on the Khyber Pass which was closed against the British. Upon this an expedition under General Lockhart was sent to the Afridi head quarters on the Tirah plateau which had not yet been visited by the British. A severe fighting took place, after which the principal tribes were reduced to order and peace was established (1898).

Chitral Expedition.

Waziris

Afridis

Tirah Expedition

A further step towards the delimitation of the Russo Afghan frontier was taken during the administration of Lord Elgin. The boundary was laid down in the region of the Pamirs where the southern frontier of Russia was fixed at the Oxus as far east as Lake Victoria (1895).

Delimitation of frontier

During the administration of Lord Elgin, India was unfortunately visited by a series of misfortunes. In 1896, the plague which is still ravaging the land first made its appearance and in the next year a terrible famine broke out and a violent earthquake caused a heavy loss of life and property. The Govern-

Plague

Famine
Earthquake

ment did not spare any pains or money to mitigate the sufferings of the people occasioned by these divine visitations. In the same year Queen Victoria completed the sixtieth year of her reign and a Diamond Jubilee was celebrated in consequence throughout the country.

Lord Curzon — Lord Ilgin was succeeded in 1899 by Lord Curzon. The first difficulty that he had to face was a great famine which visited Western India and the Central Provinces. It was one of the worst famines in Indian history and millions of people were affected. Lord Curzon adopted vigorous measures to relieve the famine stricken people and appointed a famine commission to investigate into the matter and suggest remedies. Several protective measures against famine were adopted by Lord Curzon who laid it down that in future irrigation works should be undertaken when necessary, even though they might not prove profitable to the Government. That the ryots might not be deprived of their lands by exacting money lenders he passed the Punjab Land Alienation Act which restricted the powers of the peasants of the Punjab to alienate their lands for debt. The method of levying the land tax was also improved protecting the ryots against heavy and unjust assessments as far as possible.

Lord Curzon made a departure from the frontier policy of his predecessors. He wanted to cultivate friendly relations with the frontier tribes instead of trying to suppress them. He accordingly withdrew British troops from many of the frontier posts and replaced them by levies from the tribes themselves.

Diamond
Jubilee

Famine

Famine
Commission

Irrigation

Punjab Land
Alienation
Act

New Fron-
tier Policy

whom he put under British officers To keep the turbulent tribes in check, he created a new province, called the North-West Frontier Province, by severing several frontier districts from the Punjab and adding to them some tribal territories beyond their limits The new province has been placed under a Chief Commissioner and is under the direct supervision of the Supreme Government

N. W. F.
Province.

Lord Curzon devoted much thought to education in India In 1904, the Government issued a resolution which abolished the Primary Examinations and declared that in future the Primary Schools were to be estimated by their general efficiency and not by results Vernacular education was improved by the introduction of a modified form of the Kindergarten system, greater attention being directed to nature study and hand and eye training A commission was appointed to consider how far the University education could be improved The commission came to the conclusion that the education given by the University had deteriorated on account of its cheapness, which had induced more young men to take advantage of it than were really qualified They, therefore, recommended the raising of college fees, the introduction of a system of college and school inspection, and the framing of more stringent affiliation rules The number of members in the Senate was also to be reduced, so as to ensure that only those who were really interested in education would be members The Indian Universities were reorganised accordingly Lord Curzon also limited the discretionary power of the Local Governments in educational matters

Educational
reforms

University
Commissioner

Director-General of Education.

by appointing a Director-General of Education, who was to see that the same policy of education was followed in different provinces

Police Commission

Another commission was appointed to consider the Police system of the country. The commission suggested that there should be a substantial increase in the pay of Police officers, that the prospects of all ranks should be improved and that capable and educated Indians should be drawn into the service by instituting for them a new class of officers called Deputy Superintendents.

Deputy Superintendent of Police

Commerce and Industry Department

Trade and industries also received due attention from Lord Curzon. He created a new Department of Commerce and Industry and placed it under an Ordinary Member of the Council. He improved railway communication with the mining centres and encouraged exhibitions of Indian arts.

Preservation of Ancient Monuments

Preservation and restoration of ancient monuments and places of historical interest in India formed another special feature of Lord Curzon's administration. An Act for the protection of ancient monuments in India was passed, and many architectural monuments of ancient and mediæval India were repaired and restored.

Curzon's foreign policy

The foreign policy of Lord Curzon was calculated to strengthen the position of India by extending British trade and influence beyond the frontiers. In 1903, he visited the Persian Gulf with a view to re-establishing friendly relations with the people on the borders of the Gulf. He also prevented the French from obtaining a coaling station at Muscat on the Gulf. In 1904, Lord Curzon thought it neces-

sary to send an expedition to Tibet, as the Dalai Lama did not observe the terms of the treaty of 1890 and was suspected of seeking friendship with Russia. The expedition entered the sacred city of Lhasa, and the Dalai Lama was forced to abdicate, and his successors concluded a treaty with the British, who occupied the Chumbi valley as a security for the observance of its terms. An agreement was afterwards arrived at between the British and the Russian Governments by which it was settled that, Tibet should remain under the suzerainty of China and outside the sphere of Russian influence.

Tibet
Expedition.

Anglo-
Russian
agreement.

The policy of confidence in the native princes which led to the institution of the Imperial Service troops in the Native States was further advanced by Lord Curzon by formation of the Imperial Cadet Corps into which sons of native princes and nobles were admitted. The British Indian army was also reformed; the native regiments were re-armed, the artillery strengthened and the transport service reorganised. When the British were engaged in South Africa in fighting against the Boers, and in China against the Boxers, contingents from the Indian army were sent to co-operate with the British troops, thus emphasising the unity of the British Empire.

Imperial
Cadet Corps.

Army
reforms.

One of the saddest events to be recorded here is the death of Her Gracious Majesty, the Queen-Empress Victoria, who passed away on the 22nd January, 1901, after a most glorious reign extending over nearly sixty-four years. On the 1st January, 1903, her son and successor, Edward VII, was proclaimed Emperor of India at a *darbar* at Delhi,

Death of
Empress
Victoria.

Emperor
Edward VII.

Delhi
Durbar.

which in point of magnificence had never been surpassed in this country

Lord
Amphill

In 1904, Lord Curzon's term of office expired. But the Home Government thought it proper to give him an extension of office for two years more. Lord Curzon went to England on six months' leave and Lord Amphill, Governor of Madras, officiated as Viceroy during his absence.

Partition of
Bengal

The most important event after the return of Lord Curzon was what is known as the "Partition of Bengal". The province of Bengal was thought to be too heavy a charge for a single Lieutenant Governor, so a new Lieutenant Governorship was created under the name of Eastern Bengal and Assam by transferring a portion of Bengal to Assam. The Sambalpoore district of the Central Provinces was added to Bengal while Berar, which had been obtained on a permanent lease from the Nizam, was transferred to the Central Provinces.

Military
Membership
controversy.

Another question that came up for consideration was that of representation of the Army in the Supreme Council. Hitherto the Military Member had brought forward all army business before the Government, and the Commander-in-Chief, though also a member of the Council, had to make his proposals about the army through the Military Member. Lord Kitchener, the Commander-in-Chief, protested against this system and suggested that the Commander-in-Chief should be the chief representative of the Army in the Supreme Council and the Military Member should henceforth be only a Member for Military Supply. Lord Curzon opposed Lord Kitchener, but the recommendations of the latter were

Lord
Kitchener.

accepted by the Secretary of State Lord Curzon now wanted that General Barrow should be appointed to fill up the office of the Military Member of his Council, but the Home Government did not agree, whereupon the Viceroy resigned though he had not yet served out the full term of his extension (1905)

Resignation
of Curzon

o

Lord Minto II.—Lord Curzon was succeeded by Lord Minto, a descendant of the Earl of Minto, a former Governor General. He showed wonderful tact and cool headedness in managing affairs in times of trouble. His great sympathy for the aspirations of the people of India was indicated by the introduction of important constitutional reforms. By the Indian Councils Act, the Indian Legislative Councils, both Provincial and Imperial, were reorganised and extended by admission of a large number of non official members to whom additional privileges were given. It may also be mentioned that during the administration of this Viceroy, for the first time in the history of British India an Indian was appointed a member of the Viceroy's Executive Council, and two Indians were admitted as members into the Council of the Secretary of State for India.

Indian
Councils Act
of 1909

In December, 1905, His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales, now our Emperor George V., visited the country, and was welcomed by the people wherever he went, with enthusiastic demonstrations of joy and loyalty.

Visit of the
Prince of
Wales

In the year 1910 our beloved Emperor or Edward VII passed away and his death was felt as a great personal loss by every one in the world who val

Death of

peace and amity. He will be ever remembered in the history of the world as the 'Great Peace Maker'. He has been succeeded by the Emperor George V, whose coronation was celebrated amidst universal rejoicings in June, 1911.

Lord Hardinge II—Lord Minto was succeeded in 1910 by Lord Hardinge, a descendant of the first Lord Hardinge.

The administration of Lord Hardinge will be ever remembered for the gracious visit of the King Emperor George V and Queen Mary to India. It was the first time in the annals of India that a King and Queen of England came in person to visit this country, and this act of grace gave rise to feelings of intense joy and passionate loyalty in the hearts of the Indian people. They were welcomed with enthusiastic joy wherever they went, and received the heart-felt homage of their loyal and devoted Indian subjects. An Imperial *darbar* of unparalleled magnificence was held at Delhi in the presence of Their Imperial Majesties, and their coronation was proclaimed to the people with all befitting solemnity and pomp, on the 12th December, 1911. It was on this occasion that His Imperial Majesty also announced certain important changes in the administration of India, which have since been effected and which are of a far-reaching character. The seat of the Imperial Government, His Majesty decreed, should be transferred from Calcutta to the old historic city of Delhi, the ancient capital of India. Lord Curzon's partition of Bengal had wounded the hearts of the Bengali-speaking people, His Majesty healed this wound by re-uniting

Emperor
George V:

The Royal
Visit

The Corona-
tion Durbar

Administra-
tive changes.

Transfer of
capital



the two Bengals which were raised into a Presidency with a Governor and Council. It was further announced that Behar, Chota Nagpur and Orissa should be separated from Bengal and placed under a Lieutenant Governor and Council, while Assam should form a separate province under a Chief Commissioner.

Presidency
of Bengal

New
Province of
Behar and
Orissa

Lord Carmichael, as the first Governor of the Presidency of Bengal, assumed charge of the province on the 1st April, 1912, and was succeeded in 1917 by Lord Ronaldshay.

The Viceroyalty of Lord Hardinge saw the beginning of the greatest war that the world has ever seen, which broke out in Europe in August, 1914 and involved most of the nations of the world. After raging most violently for about four years and a half, the war at last ended in complete victory of England and her allies over Germany and her supporters to whose inordinate ambition this world wide conflagration was principally due. As a part of the British Empire, India threw herself heartily into the struggle and the bravery of her sons proved no mean factor in winning the war. Her invaluable services in this connection have been so far recognised that she was not only allowed to send her representatives to the Peace Conference which settled the final peace terms after the war, but has also been given the privilege of sending delegates to the League of Nations which has been formed by the chief nations of the world for the prevention of wars in future.

The Great
World War.

India's part
in it

Indian
representa-
tives in
the Peace
Conference
and in the
League of
Nations

Lord Chelmsford — Lord Hardinge was succeeded in 1916 by Lord Chelmsford. His administration marks an epoch in the constitutional history of India.

The British Government having declared that its policy is "to provide for the increasing association of Indians in every branch of Indian administration and for the gradual development of self governing institutions' with a view to granting full responsible government to India in time Lord Chelmsford in conjunction with Mr Montagu the then Secretary of State for India, prepared a scheme of constitutional reforms as a "substantial step in this direction " It formed the basis of the Government of India Act which was passed on the 23rd December, 1919 By this Act, the legislatures of the country have been considerably enlarged and the right of voting has been given to a large number of the common people who never enjoyed the privilege before The Indian legislature shall henceforth consist of the Governor-General and two chambers, namely the Council of State and the Legislative Assembly In the Legislative Assembly, at least five-sevenths of the members shall be elected and at least one third of the other members shall be non official while of the sixty members of the Council of State not more than twenty shall be official members Of the members of each provincial legislature (called Legislative Council) not more than twenty per cent shall be official members and at least seventy per cent shall be elected members Bengal, Bombay, Madras, the United Provinces Punjab, Behar and Orissa, the Central Provinces and Assam shall each be ruled by a Governor, who shall be guided in relation to certain subjects (called "transferred subjects") by the advice of Ministers chosen from amongst the elected members of the

Government
of India
Act 1919

Council of
State and
Legislative
Assembly.

Legislative
Councils.

Diarchy
Ministers

local Legislative Council The salary of the Secretary of State for India shall be paid out of the British revenues, instead of the Indian revenues Ten years after the passing of this Act a Commission shall be appointed to enquire into the working of this reformed system of government and to "report as to whether and to what extent it is desirable to establish the principle of responsible government" in India His Royal Highness the Duke of Connaught came to India as the representative of His Majesty the Emperor to inaugurate the Reforms Indian Ministers were appointed and at least one province, *viz*, Behar and Orissa, got an Indian Governor in the person of Lord Sinha of Raipur, a distinguished Bengali gentleman, who was one of our representatives in the Peace Conference and who was the first Indian to be raised to the British peerage and to be appointed Under Secretary of State for India

Secretary of State's salary

Statutory Commission.

Duke of Connaught's visit

Lord Sinha, first Indian Governor

Educational reform also engaged the attention of Lord Chelmsford who appointed a Commission of educational experts to enquire into the working of the Calcutta University The Commission recommended certain measures for the improvement of our educational system and its suggestions have been partially carried out in the organisation of the newly established Dacca University

University Commission

Dacca University

Lord Reading—Lord Reading the Lord Chief Justice of England, has been appointed to succeed Lord Chelmsford Son of a Jewish merchant of London, Lord Reading has gained his present illustrious position by the sheer force of his extraordinary ability. He is not only a great lawyer and financier, but is also

Government of India. But as the Central Government had not always sufficient knowledge of the local circumstances even the just demands of the Provincial Governments were very often ignored and, many urgent reforms could not be carried out in consequence. Nor had the Provincial Governments any interest in expending the revenues of their provinces or in avoiding the waste thereof, for local economy did not always bring with it any local advantage. Besides, in exercising its financial control, the Supreme Government frequently interfered in the local administrative matters, which it had no sufficient knowledge to deal with properly. To remedy this unsatisfactory state of things, Lord Mayo adopted the system of Provincial Contracts. According to this system, the Supreme Government makes a contract for a number of years with the Local Governments allotting to each province a certain share of certain taxes according to its needs and resource to be spent by it as best it can, without the interference of the Supreme Government. This arrangement makes each Local Government feel more independent and take greater care in the collection and expenditure of its revenue, for it may profit by its own economy and spend the sum saved on many useful works for the benefit of the province.

Financial
Decentrali-
sation

Until 1878 nearly everything imported into India was taxed, but in that year the principle of Free Trade was adopted and import duties on a great number of articles were remitted, as the first step towards the complete freedom of trade. In 1882 nearly all the import duties were abolished by the

Customs
duties

a great statesman and it may confidently be expected that he will treat the people under his care with justice sympathise with their aspirations and help them along their path of progress. Shortly after the assumption of the Viceroyalty by Lord Reading the Earl of Lytton succeeded Lord Ronaldshay as the Governor of Bengal while in the sister province of Behar and Orissa, Sir Henry Wheeler was appointed to succeed Lord Sinha. In Assam Sir William Morris has been succeeded by Sir John Kerr.

FINANCIAL REFORMS UNDER THE VICEROYS

East India
Company's
finance

In the time of the East India Company there was hardly any organised system of financial administration in British India. The suppression of the Sepoy Mutiny and the reorganisation of the administration when India passed to the Crown naturally increased the expenditure and gave rise to serious financial difficulties. These difficulties were however ably grappled with by Mr James Wilson the first Finance Member of the Governor General's Council under the Crown and the efficient system of public accounts which he began was afterwards developed and perfected by his successors.

Financial
system
organised by
Mr Wilson

The Central
Government
as the sole
financial
authority

At the outset all the revenues were credited to the Supreme Government which possessed the sole financial authority. Nothing could be spent by the Provincial Governments independently, and even such small matters as engaging an additional manual servant on Rs 5 a month had to be reported for orders to the

Government of India But as the Central Government had not always sufficient knowledge of the local circumstances even the just demands of the Provincial Governments were very often ignored and, many urgent reforms could not be carried out in consequence. Nor had the Provincial Governments any interest in expending the revenues of their provinces or in avoiding the waste thereof, for local economy did not always bring with it any local advantage Besides, in exercising its financial control, the Supreme Government frequently interfered in the local administrative matters, which it had no sufficient knowledge to deal with properly To remedy this unsatisfactory state of things, Lord Mayo adopted the system of Provincial Contracts According to this system, the Supreme Government makes a contract for a number of years with the Local Governments, allotting to each province a certain share of certain taxes according to its needs and resource, to be spent by it as best it can, without the interference of the Supreme Government This arrangement makes each Local Government feel more independent and take greater care in the collection and expenditure of its revenue, for it may profit by its own economy and spend the sum saved on many useful works for the benefit of the province

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Customs
duties

Government of Lord Ripon But in 1891 import duties were again imposed to meet the financial difficulties of the Government

Income tax

In 1860 under the advice of Mr James Wilson an income tax was imposed on all incomes of Rs 500 and upwards at the rate of 4 per cent and on incomes between 200 and 500 Rupees at half that rate Many changes have since been made in the system thus introduced In 1903 the minimum taxable income was raised by Lord Curzon to Rs 1 000 and now it has been raised to Rs 2 000

Salt revenue

One of the principal sources of the British Indian revenue is the salt tax But formerly the salt duty varied in different provinces while there were many Native States where salt was not taxed at all So to ensure the sale of salt in a province where it was taxed at a high rate it was necessary to shut out from it salt taxed at a lower rate The measures adopted for this purpose were very complex and vexatious and caused much obstruction to trade To remedy this evil equalisation of the salt duties throughout the country was felt to be necessary The first important step towards this was taken in 1879 when the duties on salt throughout British India were made to approximate so nearly that salt could not be profitably carried from one province to another and agreements were entered into with the native princes who possessed important salt fields under which the control of these fields was transferred to the British Government The reform was completed in the time of Lord Ripon by the equalisation of the duties upon salt throughout India at a reduced rate

Equalisation
of salt
duties

One great financial difficulty from which India has to suffer is the question of Exchange. India has to pay a large sum of money to England every year to meet various charges, as interest of money borrowed from that country for public purposes, pensions to retired Anglo-Indian officers, &c., and this payment has to be made in gold which is the currency of England. But as the Indian revenue is collected in silver, gold coin has to be bought in exchange for this silver before the payment can be made. Now the value of silver in relation to gold varies every year, and so it is impossible for the Government to estimate beforehand the probable expenditure of the year. To meet this difficulty, an Act was passed in 1890 which declared that English gold coin should be legal tender in India at the rate of one sovereign for fifteen rupees and the Indian mints should be open to the public for the coinage of sovereigns. But recently it has been found necessary to fix the value of a sovereign at ten rupees.

Currency
and
Exchange

Home
Charges

Gold
standard

CHAPTER V.

STATE OF THE COUNTRY UNDER THE BRITISH

Benefits of British Rule

The country at last enjoys peace—One of the most marked features of the history of the British rule in India is the abiding peace, which it has established throughout the country. Peace is always the result of a strong government, and a strong government naturally follows when a powerful empire is set up. As no empire in India has ever been so powerful as the British Empire, India has never enjoyed such peace and tranquillity as at present. The bitter hostilities and bloody wars among the rival chiefs, that devastated the land when the central government was weak, have now altogether disappeared, while wars of succession and insurrections of provincial governors, that constantly disturbed the peace of the country, have, under the excellent system of the present administration, become things of the past. The British Government is so much respected and feared abroad that we have no longer to apprehend plundering raids and invasions from without, like those of Mahmud the Afghan, Timur the Tartar, or Nadir the Persian. Our persons and property are also safe from the attacks of the robbers, marauders and other pests of human society that infested the land for ages. The days of the Thugs, Pindaris, Bhangs, and Dacoits are gone, and their descendants

Effects of the
establishment of a
strong
empire

Cessation of
internal
feuds and
foreign
invasions

Extinction
of the pre-
datory
system

have now taken to peaceful occupations. The wild tribes that often swelled their number have now been brought under the civilising influence of the British Government and have turned from being fierce disturbers of peace to be honest labourers and quiet agriculturists.

Reclamation
of wild
tribes

Trade and Industry have been developed—The establishment of peace has naturally led to a development of trade and industry. Indigenous manufactures have indeed suffered a great deal under fierce competition with the machine made goods from Europe. But this evil has been made up for to some extent by the introduction of British capital and enterprise which have enabled India to turn to account many of her vast but hitherto unused resources. Cotton and jute mills, the trade in tea and coal and many other branches of industry are all together due to the British. These not only bring large profits to the capitalists but also afford employment to millions of our countrymen.

Value of
British
capital

New
industries

Easy means of communication help to prevent famine and disorder and to fuse the various races into one people.—The growing trade and manufactures have been further facilitated by the improved means of communication introduced by the present rulers. The country has been covered with a net work of railways and telegraph lines while steam vessels are seen plying on almost all the navigable rivers. The cheap postal system which carries a letter from one end of the country to the other for a few pice has enabled even the poorest of the people to communicate with their distant friends and re

Railway
telegraph
steamer and
cheap
postage

Roads and
canals

Effects of
the improved
means of
communica-
tion

latives The number of roads and canals is constantly on the increase through the activity of the Public Works Department and there is hardly any part of the country which is very difficult of access in these days The effects of this easy communication have been very important It enables the Government not only to check effectually any riot or disturbance occurring in the remotest corner of the Empire but also to cope successfully with famine and other dreadful visitations to which our country has been periodically subject from the earliest times Above all it has proved a potent factor in bringing about that fusion of different races into one great nation which is considered to be one of the most valuable benefits that follow from the establishment of an empire The fiery Pathan the brave Moghul the heroic Rajput the hardy and intelligent Mahratta the warlike Sikh the enterprising Parsi and the intellectual Bengali now meet and shake hands with one another as friends and neighbours and feel that they are all fellow citizens in the same Empire

Sanitary
measures

The Government looks after the health of the people —The British Government has also devoted a great deal of attention to the preservation and improvement of public health Most of the principal towns have now been supplied with filtered water and sanitary rules have been carefully observed in planning the system of drainage and conservancy The medical colleges and schools established in various cities turn out every year hundreds of physicians armed with the knowledge of modern medical science to combat with disease and death while hospitals

Med cal
Colleges

and charitable dispensaries have been built all over the country for the treatment of the sick and the injured, especially of the poorer classes. The noble efforts of Lady Dufferin have resulted in the establishment of *zenana* hospitals for Indian ladies in different parts of the country, and have thus supplied a long-felt want. Whenever a pestilence breaks out, there is a strenuous effort on the part of the Government to stop its progress and to mitigate its rigour.

Hospitals

Lady
Dufferin
zenana
hospitals

The English language is one of the greatest gifts of the British to the country.—The influence of the British rule on the moral and intellectual life of the people has been of the greatest consequence. One of the most valuable gifts of England to the people of this country is the English language. Through its help the vast knowledge of the West has been thrown open to us, while the Vernaculars of the country have been greatly enriched by the grand ideas of Europe and America. It has also proved an excellent medium through which the different races of India can communicate with ease not only with one another, but also with the civilised nations of the West.

Value of the
English
language

The British seek to educate the masses.—The education of the masses is another triumph of British rule. The colleges and the schools are open to all classes of the people without distinction of caste or creed, and primary schools have been set up all over the country to give at least an elementary education to all such as cannot avail themselves of the benefits of the higher education. But while encouraging the study of modern science and learning, the Government has not neglected the ancient lore of the East.

Primary
schools

Asiatic
Societies

The researches of the Asiatic Societies are constantly bringing to light those invaluable classical works, rich with the wisdom of ages, which, but for them, would have lain buried in oblivion for ever.

Printing
Press.

The Press helps to diffuse knowledge.—But nothing has helped the spread of knowledge among all classes of society so much as the introduction of the printing press. It has not only made books cheap and easily accessible to the poor, but has also made the publication of popular newspapers and periodicals possible. The newspapers are a new and powerful influence in the land. They teach politics and spread general information among the people, check the rise and spread of false and harmful rumours, expose the abuses and the defects of the society, bring our grievances to the notice of the Government, and, above all, serve as the chief channel for the expression of public opinion, which was hardly audible in former times.

Newspapers.

Collector-
Magistrate.

Duties of a
Collector.

The administration of the country rests on a sound basis.—The British Indian Empire is divided into several unequal provinces, each under a local ruler. Each province is divided into a certain number of districts, and the chief executive officer of each district is called Collector-Magistrate or in some cases Deputy Commissioner. This officer is a collector of revenue, as well as a revenue and criminal judge. He has also to look after the police, public works, municipalities, education, sanitation and all other important concerns of his district. In his manifold duties, he is assisted by a large number of subordinate officers of various grades from joint and assistant magistrates

down to the common watchmen of the villages. Several districts usually form a Division presided over by an officer known as a Commissioner. Besides the Collector Magistrate there is also another important officer in every settled district known as the District Judge who is the chief judicial authority of the District. The District Judges and the Collector-Magistrates in their judicial functions are under the jurisdiction of High Courts and Chief Courts which are supreme both in civil and criminal matters but with a final appeal to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council in England.

District
Judge

High Court

Privy
Council

The provincial rulers are under the authority of the Government of India which is presided over by the Governor General and Viceroy who is sent out from England to rule for a period of five years. The Government of India in its turn is controlled by the Secretary of State for India who is a member of the British Government and is responsible for his action to the British Parliament. The Indian Government may thus be regarded as forming a part of the British administration at home.

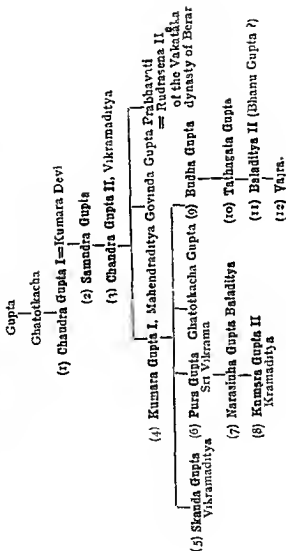
The Central
Government.

Home
Government.

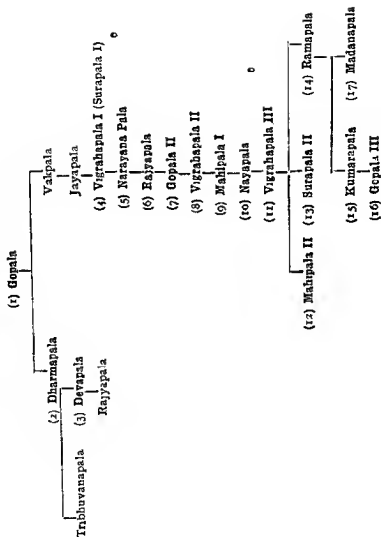


APPENDIX.

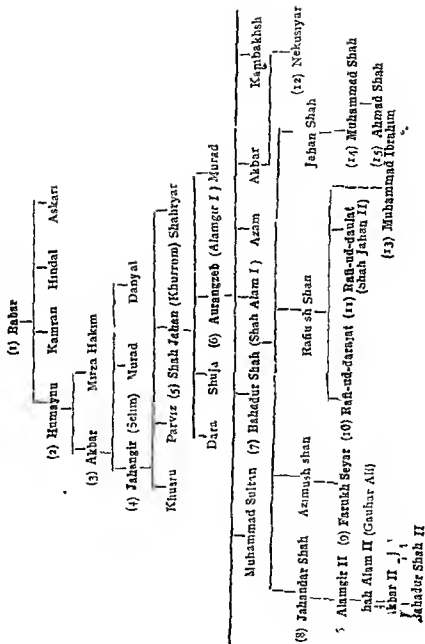
A Genealogical Table of the Imperial Gupta Dynasty.



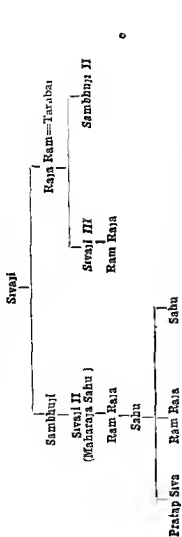
A Genealogical Table of the Pala kings



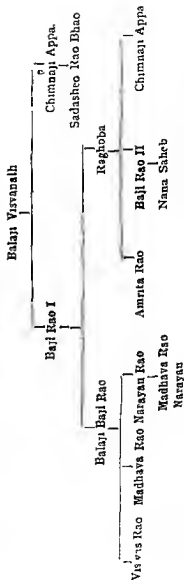
A Genealogical Table of the Moghul Dynasty



A Genealogical Table of the Family of Sivaji



A Genealogical Table of the Peshwas



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Warren Hastings, 1774-1785
Sir John Macpherson (officiating), 1785-1786
Marquis of Cornwallis, 1786-1793
Sir John Shore, 1793-1798
Sir Alured Clarke (officiating) 1798
Marquis of Wellesley, 1798-1805.
Marquis of Cornwallis (second time), 1805.
Sir George Barlow (temporary), 1805-1807.
Earl of Minto I, 1807-1813.
Earl of Moira (Marquis of Hastings), 1813-1823.
John Adam (officiating), 1823
Earl of Amherst, 1823-1828
Mr Butterworth Bayley (officiating), 1828.
Lord William Bentinck, 1828-1835
Sir Charles Metcalfe (temporary), 1835
Earl of Auckland, 1836-1842.
Earl of Ellenborough, 1842-1844
Viscount Hardinge I, 1844-1848.
Marquis of Dalhousie, 1848-1856.
Earl of Canning, 1856-1858

Viceroy of India under the Crown.

Earl of Canning, 1858-1862
Earl of Elgin I, 1862-63
Sir Robert Napier (officiating) 1863.
Sir William Denison (officiating), 1863
Sir John Lawrence, 1864-1869
Earl of Mayo, 1869-1872

Sir John Strachey (officiating), 1872
 Lord Napier (officiating), 1872
 Earl of Northbrook 1872 1876
 Earl of Lytton 1876 1880
 Marquis of Ripon 1880 1884
 Earl of Dufferin, 1884-1888
 *Marquis of Lansdowne 1888 1894
 Earl of Elgin II 1894 1899
 Lord Curzon, 1899 1904.
 Lord Ampthill (officiating), 1904
 Lord Curzon (again), 1904 1905
 Earl of Minto II, 1905 1910
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